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SCHOOLS  
AT HOME AND ABROAD





# SCHOOLS AT HOME AND ABROAD

BY

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*LONDON*

SWAN SONNENSCHN & CO., LIM.

PATERNOSTER SQUARE

1901

LB875  
H95A3

GENERAL

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## PREFACE

THESE essays and addresses on educational topics have been prepared at various times, and for varying audiences.

Several of them were prepared for gatherings of primary teachers, others for gatherings of parents and persons interested in education. Some repetition and apparent diversity seem almost inevitable in a collection of essays written under these circumstances. Yet the writer thinks that, beneath this repetition and diversity, the essential unity of attitude, so to speak, is preserved.

There will be noticed too in the text local references, but the reader will see that the argument demands such local "point," and he will be able to vary the reference to suit the environment.

The purpose of the writer is not an ambitious one. He makes no claim to originality in any respect. His aim throughout has been to make available to teachers and others interested in education, the valuable mass of material that, in the form of educational statistics and reports, has been collected both by Government offices and by private individuals.

Were a list of the many writers consulted added, it would seem pedantic; and, as the author claims no originality for himself, it is hoped that the omission of such a list will be excused.

In the study of systems of National Education, the endeavour has been to bring to bear upon educational

statistics and reports, those principles of scientific evaluation, which would be applied in such a study as Comparative Anatomy.

If the writer has been able, in some respect, to get at the essential significance of educational statistics he is more than satisfied.

Like all writers in these fields of educational activity he feels under a special debt of obligation to the Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Education, Washington, U.S.A., and to the Special Reports issued by the Board of Education, London.

The writer is particularly indebted to his friend, Principal Salmon, not only for reading the proofs but for much valuable counsel. He also wishes to thank Miss Michell, of St. Helen's School, and Sister Elizabeth, of St. Joseph's School, Swansea, for the addenda to the chapter on "The Kindergarten, at Home and Abroad," and finally his thanks are due to Mr. W. Williams, B.Sc., and Mr. H. T. Evans, B.A., for revising the proofs.

He also wishes to express his obligations to the editors of "The Contemporary Review," "The Journal of Education," "Child Life," and "Young Wales," for permission to reproduce certain of these articles that have already appeared in those magazines.

SWANSEA,  
*November, 1901.*

To My Wife

## SOME BOOKS REFERRED TO IN THE TEXT.

---

- "Dickens as an Educator," by Jas. L. Hughes (Arnold).
- "Essentials of Method," by C. De Garmo (Isbister).
- "Rapport sur l'enseignement professionnel en Angleterre," par Oscar Pyfferoen (Bruxelles).
- "A quoi tient le supériorité des Anglo-Saxons," by E. Demolins (Firmin-Didot et Cie).
- "Methods of Teaching in America," by Alice Zimmern (Sonnenschein).
- "Teaching in Three Continents," by W. Catton Grasby (Cassell).
- "Some Impressions of American Education," by D. Salmon (Griffiths, Swansea).
- "The Public School System of the United States," by J. M. Rice (The Century Co).
- "General Method," } by C. A. McMurry (Bloomington, Ill).
- "The Method of the Recitation," }
- "Introduction to Herbartian Principles of Teaching," by C. I. Dodd (Sonnenschein).
- "Herbart and the Herbartians," by C. De Garmo (Scribner).
- "Introduction to the Pedagogy of Herbart," C. Ufer (Heath).
- "Apperception," by Dr. Karl Lange (Heath).
- "The Teaching of Ceography," by A. Geikie (Macmillan).
- "Outlines of Pedagogics," by Prof. W. Rein, translated by C. C. and Ida J. Van Liew (Sonnenschein).





## THE HALF-WAY HOUSE

### A STUDY IN COMPÀRATIVE EDUCATION

THAT the amount of trained intellect, of skilled brain-power which a nation possesses is the only true measure of its power is beginning to be accepted.

Natural resources and hereditary aptitude will for a time compensate for a lack of this, but the danger is the more insidious flattering as it does national vanity and deluding into a false security. The commercial greatness of Germany to-day differs in this respect from that of America that it has been attained in a great measure despite natural obstacles. Our own commercial power like that of America is mainly due to natural resources and national aptitude. It is fortunate for us that a national characteristic, namely self-depreciation is crying aloud in pessimistic tones, and warning us of the dangerously false position we are in. It is not technical nor commercial education that we need as much as a better and more comprehensive scheme of national training. More skilled intellects prepared to take up this problem and that problem, not so much because a training in the solution of similar problems has been received but because the intellect has been trained to attack scientifically all problems.

The foundation stone of every system of national training is the school of the people, the primary school. Two nations by their commercial competition have been forcing the above truths home to us, and it is with the hope of learning other lessons from our rivals that this paper is written. It is not in any sense a comprehensive comparison, but rather a series of impressions gathered from many sources and placed in juxtaposition here.

In Germany to-day the "caste" feeling is acute, in England it is less so, in America it has, as a political force, disappeared. In Germany the Volksschule is, generally speaking, for one class only, the labouring class; in England the elementary school though originally designed for the poor is open to all, but utilised mainly by the labouring and lower middle classes; in America the common school is in theory for all classes, and in practice is largely attended by all classes.\*

In Germany primary education is partially free, in England entirely free, whilst in America not only is primary education free, but to a considerable extent secondary and academic are also free.

Lastly, private schools have almost entirely disappeared in Germany: as a matter of fact there are 404 private elementary schools in Prussia; in England as competitors of the elementary school they are moribund; in America they are flourishing.

German education though not so minutely organised as, say French education, is intensely bureaucratic. The State, through its officers trains, appoints, and

\* "The elementary school should be made as strong as possible, for it is the greatest leveller in our society. There is no democracy like that of the common school. Here friendships cross all social lines and make new combinations. The greatest equalizing force which is to-day at work in American society is the common school." (Supt. Murray of Colorado).

pensions teachers, compels effectively every parent to send his child to school, prescribes the books to be used, sometimes proscribes methods, leaves to the locality but little of initiative or control, but to its servant the teacher secures a sound status and considerable freedom of method in carrying out a prescribed curriculum.

In the United States on the other hand the doctrine of individualism has been carried to its logical conclusion. The Federal Government has practically no control over the education of its future citizens. The sole function of the Federal Government is the annual publication of valuable reports, and the collection and publication of statistics which, owing to their voluntary nature, are incomplete.

Each state is a law unto itself in matters educational, and within each state every variety of educational efficiency may be found. Here teachers are licensed to teach for one, there for three years; this town employs only "trained" teachers, that one employs the cheapest it can get (for example more than half the teachers in the State of Utah have received only an elementary school education). This city has at the head of its educational administration a pedagogue of international reputation, that one boasts of a gentleman who fills up the interstices of a busy life by "bossing" the schools. Beside some of the finest schools in the world are some of the poorest. There is an extraordinary variation in efficiency of American schools, less perhaps of English, and certainly still less of German schools. Public interest in education is much keener in Germany and America than in England. In America all classes are interested in education, in Germany the learned classes, in England—well, no class. It is no uncommon thing for audiences of a thousand or more to attend a course

of lectures or a conference on educational topics in America.

People of wealth and social position often attend university lectures in Pedagogy. It is a significant fact that America and Germany have each over 250 educational periodicals, whereas I doubt if we support *one tenth* of that number at home. Again, some of the most interesting and pregnant work of the day is being worked out in American schools and colleges. Child study, the rational basis of any system of training, is gradually being monopolised by Americans, and in other directions American thought is leading the educational world.

That she means business is shown by the royal bounty of her wealthy sons, who, as a free-will offering to the good cause gave in one year, 1899, fourteen million pounds sterling for the better education of Columbia's children and young people. Even the gravest defects of American education, such as irregular attendance, etc., may have their compensation. In time, doubtless, the parent will voluntarily see the folly and extravagance of thwarting the training of his child, and such a time it may be said is worth waiting for. Germany with her magnificent system of school attendance has still to deplore the rapid rate at which so many of her children degenerate after leaving school into all the indifference of an uneducated class, whereas America can boast that despite their meagre equipment her children leave school with a keen desire for more education, which by means of newspapers, lectures, and courses, they are generally able to gratify.

In America every career is open to the enterprising youth, in Germany it is generally fixed for him when he is nine years old. The educational ladder is practi-

cally complete in America, in Germany it is almost unknown and until recently, undesired.

The German Kindergarten for children under six years of age is not encouraged by the state and receives no public assistance whatsoever. The German government evidently considers that a child should not attend school until he is six years old. Indeed, the vast majority of German children never do. It is only in a few of the larger cities that the Kindergarten is found. The State does not permit the Kindergarten to teach any of the subjects of the elementary school curriculum, and looks upon them merely as places where children are looked after. The fact that no certificate is required by the State to teach in a German Kindergarten, although required of family tutors and governesses, is significant of the attitude of the State. It would seem as if it had never recovered from its first suspicion of the Kindergarten as a godless institution.

Some of the finest Kindergartens in the world are to be found in America. The *principles* of Froebel and Herbart found a congenial soil in America. American ideas on education have been largely taken from Germany, but American ideals are of home manufacture, and the pedagogic world is the richer for it. Moreover, there is an admirable independence in the world of American pedagogy, so that though Froebel and Herbart are the sources, they are by no means the autocrats of the best American teaching. It is interesting to observe that the average German teacher, primary and secondary, has no superfluity of respect for the apostle of self-activity. The German secondary school teacher has sympathies more akin to those of the English public schoolmaster than to those of the American pedagogue.

The beginning of the American Kindergarten was

due to the efforts of private individuals such as Miss Blow and Mrs. Quincy Shaw, and it was only after many years' successful work that these schools were taken over and extended by the local school boards. Many of these American Kindergartens are well built and nicely furnished. As in the German Kindergarten everything is done to make the place homelike and pleasant. The pictures on the walls are constantly changed according to the season. A piano is always provided. Each child has a small wicker chair for himself, and the children are gathered, about ten in number, around a table just as they are in the German Kindergarten. In St. Louis only two children sit at each table. Each group of ten is a class, and there may be two of these in a room. The American Kindergartens are generally open for three hours daily, in the morning only. The training of these city Kindergartens is admirable, but the pity of it is there are so few of them. There are practically none outside the larger towns. Indeed there are only 4,363 Kindergartens in the States; these employ 8,937 teachers, and have 189,604 pupils out of a total school population of fifteen million. England with a school population of five and a half million has two million children attending the infants' schools.

The Kindergarten as understood by Froebel and found in America and Germany is rare in England. There are signs of a considerable revolution taking place in the curriculum and methods of the English infants' schools, but whether these will, or can, ever develop into real Kindergartens is a moot point. The English infant school hitherto both in its methods and its architecture has been modelled closely upon the pattern of the elementary school.

Playrooms are rarely provided. It would seem, no

greater expense to build an alternating set of classrooms and playrooms as is done in Antwerp, so that whilst one half the children occupies the class-rooms the other half occupies the play-rooms.

The English class is invariably too large, and the training of the teacher in the principles of the Kindergarten too fragmentary for the real Kindergarten to flourish here, *at present*. The fact is the Kindergarten is a most expensive system of training which only wealthy bodies can undertake. Dr. Harris was able at St Louis to reduce the cost of the Kindergarten to a reasonable sum\* by utilising the gratuitous services of people anxious to make themselves practically acquainted with the details of the Kindergarten system.

Although English infant schools based on the principles of the Kindergarten are few, yet everything points to an increase. There is a divine unrest apparent; the spirit is moving on the waters. We have as a people recognised that these most impressionable and acquisitive years of childhood should be utilised for training. We alone of the three nations have provided a system of training which, if not pedagogically perfect, is at least comprehensive.

But it is in the primary schools—the people's schools that nations are made and unmade. It was to the Volksschule that Bismarck credited Königgratz, and it is in our elementary schools, if anywhere, that imperial England will learn her trust and her burden.

The German rural school is generally a plain substantial building. It has one playground for both sexes, which is often planted with trees.

The building is of two storeys, the upper one being

\* Namely to about six dollars per child which is much less than the cost per child of the city primary school.

the master's house. A school pump in the playground is the only lavatory accommodation provided, and the cloakroom is represented by a series of hat pegs in the corridor and class-room.

These small one-class schools are worked in three sections by the teacher, and the time-table is so arranged that the oral lessons are taken consecutively in each section.

The teacher is a civil servant; he has absolute security of tenure and a relatively good social position. His upbringing has generally been rural; one third of all German primary teachers spring from the farming class, so that his sympathies and tastes are in harmony with his environment. Further, on the whole he is relatively as well off as the town teacher so that he feels quite content with his position. But he *has* grievances, and one of them is the serious under-staffing of many German rural schools. A school of 90 to 100 children is not rare, and the half-time school is a fairly regular feature of many parts of rural Germany. The older children come in the morning and the younger in the afternoon, so that one teacher may have from 100 to 150 pupils to deal with in one day. The same institution flourishes in some parts of America, and even the cities of New York, Washington, and Minneapolis have had to resort to it, owing to inadequate school accommodation.

In 1896 there were in Prussia 92,001 full-sized elementary classes but only 78,431 class-rooms for them. The remaining 13,570 had either to share a class-room or attend half-day. For every 150 rural classes there are only 100 class-rooms. Further 12,578 classes had no teacher of their own. Over six hundred thousand Prussian children are taught in half-day schools and nearly one million in ungraded schools.



Nearly one and a half million Prussian children are taught in over-crowded classes, though a class is not technically overcrowded until there are over 80 children in the rural and 70 children in the urban class to one teacher. In some cases as many as 170 children to one teacher are recorded. To give each class a teacher and to reduce each to its normal size of 70 or 80 children would necessitate the appointment of 20,000 more teachers.\*

Then one hears of the local managers in Germany fixing the hours of school meeting early in the morning or late in the evening, so that the daily labour of the children may not be unduly interfered with. In the States the same end is achieved by not opening the school at all during the period that child labour is serviceable. Another grievance of the German rural teacher is the question of extraneous duties which one fifth of all the teachers are called upon to perform.

The rural school is no more popular in Germany than in England. It is said that one of the sons of Prince Bismarck will not hear of the school teacher on his estate having a better house than an agricultural labourer. Herr von Below-Saleske declared that, "people don't need much school learning in order to grub potatoes." Herr von Helldorf thus summarised his educational programme: "I am not for teaching arithmetic to the agricultural labourer. It will only spoil him. He has got to lead horses and handle the plough, not figures."

So powerful is the Agrarian Party that the state has been compelled to allow boys of school age in East Prussia to leave school and serve as shepherds. The poet has expressed the American farmer's thought in words which appear to voice rural opinion all the world over :—

\* See Commissioner's report, U.S.A., 1898-9. Vol. I., p. 135.

“..... There ain't no great good to be reached  
By tip-tocin' children up higher than ever their fathers was taught.”

The English rural school is perhaps as well housed as the average rural school in Germany. The German school is kept in a better state of repair, but in hygienic and sanitary conditions the English school is on the whole superior. The English teacher however lacks security of tenure, his upbringing is probably urban, and many inducements are held out to him to leave the country for the town school.

In America, about half the total number of school children are taught in rural schools. “It happens that ungraded rural schools with a very small attendance are to be found even in the most thickly peopled States and often in proximity to cities. Rhode Island (in 1895) reports 158 out of its 263 schools as ungraded, and 64 of them containing fewer than 10 pupils each; three towns have in the aggregate thirty-nine schools averaging fewer than ten pupils. Vermont in 1893 reported 153 schools with six pupils or less each. Massachusetts in 1893-4 reported sixteen towns with an aggregate of nearly 100 schools with an average of eleven pupils. New York in 1894-5 reported 2,983 schools with fewer than ten pupils each, and 7,529 with less than twenty.” Indeed we hear of an official visit to a school in New York State where the teacher had no pupils at present but was expecting two later on. Meanwhile embroidery kept her employed. American rural schools are open for probably not more than half the number of days per annum that the English or German rural schools are.

The teacher of one year will probably not be the teacher of the next. To many young people keeping school in this way is but an opportunity for making a little money towards some higher aim.

The State Superintendent for Connecticut writes in 1895-6. "Half of the teachers in this State do not receive more than eight dollars per week, or two hundred and eighty-eight dollars per year. Out of this grows a crop of evils. The well-qualified are justly uneasy and seek better pay and permanent tenure. The poorer districts are depleted for the benefit of the richer, and the children bear the burden of incompetency and change."

The rural school buildings vary enormously. Many of them are single-room log houses, picturesque, it is true, outside but within often comfortless and bare, and too often in a very poor state of repair; in other cases they are merely rented cabins. It could hardly be otherwise under present conditions. Occasionally one hears of quite palatial little schools put up by an enterprising community anxious to stand well in its own and its neighbours' eyes, but the unstinted admiration these excite is full evidence of how rare such buildings are.

The State Superintendent for Georgia estimates that a quarter of a million children in that State never attend school at all. Their whole time is taken up in farm work, and moreover, he adds, the schools are so uncomfortable that they are only habitable in Spring and Summer. In the State of Indiana again out of 798,917 children of school age there are 529,345 children enrolled, but of these only 392,015 attend school.

Of the work done in these rural schools as a whole, no general statement can be made. The State Superintendent for Maine, writing in 1895, states, "The State Superintendent visited two hundred of the rural schools. Of these six per cent. were ranked by him as excellent, twenty-one per cent. as good, thirty-two per cent. as fair, and forty-one per cent. as poor or very poor. . . . Even among the

teachers there are some who claim to be graduates of institutes of respectable standing, yet are among the poorest, apparently little cultured in text-books and woefully devoid of knowledge outside of them. Some of them are extremely young, in one case only 15 years old."

"It speaks not well in these districts that so many of the children quit school at a too early age. Eighty-seven per cent. in them were under 13 years of age, and as far as could be ascertained those who had left had not gone to higher schools. Unfortunately this tendency has been increasing for some time past, notwithstanding the law which requires every child between 5 and 15 years of age to attend school for at least sixteen weeks in every year. The average attendance in the schools was 21, average length of term 10 weeks, and the average age of pupils between 8 and 9 years. The weak point in them as appears from these figures was not so much in the small attendance, as in the early age at which pupils are withdrawn. A very small number of the rural schools were supplied with books and other appurtenances for supplementary work in studies. None had what might be called libraries. About 90 per cent. were supplied with maps, but the majority of these were old and of little worth. About forty per cent. were supplied with some sort of charts. Book-keeping, Civics, Music, Drawing, instruction about plants, minerals, and animals, hardly obtain at all."\*

America, like England and other parts of the world, is finding out the defects of small administrative areas in

\* Another distinguished American educator thus writes:—"The rural school goes through its accustomed round from 3 to 8 months in the year practically managed by local trustees, often kept by the man or woman most agreeable to the trustees, with no provision for compulsory attendance, the children coming to school according to the nearness or distance of their place of residence, the attractiveness of the school-house, and the popularity

education, and the cry for bigger areas is raised by all educators who have given a thought to the problem of the rural school.

The rural school problem has received considerable attention from American educators, and the report of the Committee of Twelve on Rural Schools is one of the most valuable reports ever written. American educators have attacked the problem in quite a new way. Instead of taking the school to the children they take the children to the school. By this means these small ungraded schools of ten or twenty children become a fully graded school of 300 children. The advantages are obvious. It is economical and the further education of the children beyond the common school can be provided for. The motor-car has infinite possibilities of educational reform wrapped within its throbbing breast. Another interesting experiment is the introduction of the faculty system into rural schools by which a number of small rural schools are placed under one head or principal, who, besides being teacher of one of the schools, also acts as a kind of superintendent over the other schools and by advice and help trains the other teachers in the best methods.

The newer urban schools of Germany have an accommodation for about 1,600 children and are built on the

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of the teacher ; every little squad really 'going on its own hook,' sometimes almost insisting on individual teaching, usually the school of 20 to 50 children in one room, chopped up into 'mincemeat' by a division into little classes that makes the daily session a headlong race of hearing short lessons, with scarcely an attempt at the proper class or general work that tells on the entire school, and promotes that most valuable discipline. . . . There is still no department of American education which in proportion to its cost, its momentous influence on the national life, and the national sense of its great value to the Republic, exhibits such a melancholy waste of money and energy, such confusion and failure of good educational results as are apparent to every competent observer in the ordinary country district school."

class-room and corridor system. The class-rooms, all facing the north, accommodate each about 60 children, but as only 6 sq. feet is allowed each child the rooms often appear crowded.

In England the minimum space allowed for each child is 10 sq. feet and in America in the newer schools 20 sq. feet is said to be taken as a minimum.\*

No lavatory accommodation is provided in these German schools other than a pump in the playground and drinking fountains in the corridor. In the basement, however, shower baths are some times fitted for washing the children weekly and on the south side of the building we get a teacher's room, conference room, and a room for periodically weighing and measuring the children. A very fine gymnasium is attached to the school. The school rarely, if ever, possesses a library for the pupils.

The newer English primary and higher primary schools are built with a Central Hall from which class-rooms open out. It is not as finely furnished a building perhaps as the German school but fulfils its function in life equally well. It sometimes has a gymnasium, one or two Science Laboratories, and occasionally swimming baths in the basement. Special rooms for cookery, and laundry work, and woodwork, may also be attached. The newer American schools differ in no essential respect; more use is made of iron in the construction, perhaps, and the staircases are beautifully wide. All the Chicago schools are supplied with bath tubs. The offices are in the basement where there is sometimes also a bicycle stand. The windows in all the class-rooms are carried to within 6 inches of the ceiling. The frame of the window is very lightly made. On the second story is a fine assembly hall with seating accommodation for all

\* "Modern American School Buildings." *Briggs.*

the children attending the school. The school is heated and ventilated by the Plenum system, as indeed are both the English and German school.

It is impossible to distinguish between the relative excellences of these three schools ; even experts differ. One tells us that the death rate of American school children is higher than of European children, because of the poorer hygienic condition of the American school,\* whilst another asserts that the American school building is externally and internally superior to French, German, or English schools.

It has been asserted that America spends annually more on school buildings than the rest of creation.† Six thousand new schools are annually erected. In one respect our English schools are admitted superior, and that is in the superior playground accommodation provided. The hearty zest with which our children play is full justification for this. German children rarely play, and American children, it is said, seem to be losing the power of play, a sad state of things indeed.‡

The class-room of the English and American school is better decorated by fine pictures and busts than is the German school, where indeed the only pictures are portraits of the three Emperors. "More would be distracting." The German room and its occupants are always clean and tidy. All waste paper goes into the basket. The children are extremely orderly without being in any sense cowed. The desks are generally long and cumbersome, but convenient and with backs.

\* *Burrage & Bailey* "School Sanitation and Decoration."

† Briggs, *vide ante*.

‡ "The child of the fourth generation brought up in a large city is a pathetic study. It is one of the saddest sights in the world, because it is almost without the instinct of play."

They are of three sizes so that each child has a fairly suitable desk. Myopia and spinal curvature have been shown to be, in the majority of cases, diseases contracted during school life. Cohn's and Eulenberg's figures apparently alarmed the German Government with a result that more attention is paid to hygienic consideration than was formerly the case.

The English class-room is generally provided with dual desks of one or possibly two sizes. The children are orderly as long as the teacher's eye is on them, but it is evident that from an inexperienced teacher much silent energy at any rate would be required to secure discipline.

The blackboard which is a little larger than that of the German class-room is still insufficient and not much used by the children.

In the American class-room the blackboard fixed in the wall runs round the room. Often the whole class may be seen working away simultaneously at an arithmetical problem or a drawing exercise on this blackboard.

Each pupil has a single desk with a revolving seat so that he may turn and follow his teacher as she demonstrates at different points of the room. The discipline is generally very good, but it is of a different character to that of the English and German school. No effort is exerted even silently by the teacher; she assumes that the interest of the lesson itself is sufficient to maintain attention. "The discipline seemed to me good in nearly all the schools I visited, less rigid than ours, and more dependent on the mutual good will of the teacher and taught than on mechanical rules" (Zimmern) and Principal Salmon writes: "The discipline appeared good though corporal punishment was generally forbidden, or



because it was. I did not hear any sharp words of command or see any concerted movements except at drill. The tone of a class was more that of a big family than that of a small regiment." It may be that too much has been made of these military methods in our primary schools. In some English infant schools the abolition of all such drills and exercises has been followed by the happiest results. The American teacher retains in her hands the only weapons for incorrigibles, namely x expulsion, and in bad cases, drafting to a truant school.

The fact that so much of the teaching is entrusted to women may lead to a lack of virility and strength in the training. There is a very outspoken criticism in the report of the school superintendent for Detroit. "Is it not possible that the increasing number of incorrigibles may bear some relation to this sentimentality? I know that I am terribly heterodox in suggesting that a good sound thrashing occasionally would be of more benefit to a capricious spunky youngster than all the goody-goody talks so correctly advocated. We are getting too many Mamma's pets and Lord Fauntleroy's, and I fear our system has a tendency to perpetuate it. Give us more good hearty moral discipline, more Sanfords, and Mertons, and Tom Browns."

In many American schools the boys daily salute the national flag in the central hall of the school, and recite a vow of fealty to it. This custom has recently been transferred to Manilla where its efficacy will have a severe test.

It must not however be forgotten in comparing systems of discipline, that school discipline is largely a matter of school architecture, and that the class-room system has been much longer the vogue in Germany and America than in England.

Let us listen to the teaching in these three class-rooms.

The German teacher is highly trained and well informed. We notice how carefully he recapitulates and secures the ground, how little he relies upon any text book. Indeed the German child has no text book, except for arithmetic. The teacher speaks in a low natural voice, but he insists upon his pupils speaking out. In arithmetic we notice that he allows a pupil to come out and state and work a problem on the black-board in front of the class. But this is the exception; as a rule the German teacher makes himself the source of all his pupil's knowledge. The instruction is almost entirely oral. There is very little written work in books and what there is is largely a "fair" copy of what had been previously done on the slate.

The weakness of German teaching is, I think, the lack of cultivation of the child's self activity. No sufficient appeal is made to experience, the child is rarely taught to dig out knowledge for himself and, when he leaves school and teacher behind him, he is helpless. However, he has fulfilled his obligations to the State and may now with equanimity relapse into a blissful state of indifference to education. School has but rarely engendered in him a love of education, and though he may be compelled to attend a Continuation School for a year or two longer it is but a postponement of the joyful day when he will be released from this further obligation to the State. No portion of the curriculum specially appeals to him. As a rule his manual dexterity has not been trained nor a permanent love of knowledge kindled by his school life. He takes with him from school a respect for constituted authority (which indeed he probably took with him to school) a desire to do his duty in that state of life unto which it

has pleased God to call him, no more ; and perhaps a few gems of national poetry or song which he may be able to carry about with him a few years longer. Public opinion on educational matters amongst the labouring class in Germany is much the same as in other lands, and I do not think that there is any higher educational enthusiasm amongst German labourers than there is to be found amongst the same class in England ; but the German is more law-abiding and perhaps his sense of parental obligation is keener, or to put it another way, has not been blunted by too much being taken off his hands by the State.

The pupils, boys and girls, in the American class room, have each a text book of the matter of the lesson, and generally the lesson consists of the teacher testing the children's knowledge of the book. "The American text book is a peculiar institution, self-contained and complete in itself. It is plentifully illustrated with pictures and maps ; it is divided into lessons or portions ; it supplies questions for the teacher, names all other books that throw light on each particular lesson, in fact, does the teacher's work for her." (Zimmern). Often indeed the questions she asks are taken from the book itself, even the answers she should receive are sometimes given therein. Some of the brighter children appear to monopolise the lesson, as the system lends itself to that. Although the lesson is mainly oral, there is very little oral teaching. There is much testing and appeal to memory. In a Chicago school, Dr. Rice tells us that a teacher said to her class, "Don't stop to think but tell me what you know." Then again one misses the ordered development of the German lesson, the imparting of wisdom out of a full mind, the studied care of the limits. So powerful is the tyranny of the text book

in some parts of America that we have heard of a candidate being asked "According to what text book do you teach?" "One trouble with many people is that they began text books so early in life, and followed them so closely that they have never learned to distinguish their own thoughts and opinions from those of the books; in fact, they are scarcely aware that they have opinions of their own" (McMurry). Besides this the very exhaustive criticism of Dr. Rice would appear to show that unscientific mechanical teaching as well as absurd fads flourish to an extraordinary extent in some American cities.\* "A class in the second grade is to read a short piece and the teacher having run aground on a method says to herself "In reading we must enunciate clearly and with expression." As a preparatory exercise for distinct enunciation all the children must begin by practising the vowels aloud, with the proper position of the vocal organs. Furthermore the tongue must be relaxed, so that fifty children stretch out their tongues, and move them to the teacher's beating time. Thereupon the teacher says "You have done very well, now we shall practise expression. Heads back." All the

\* DETROIT (MICHIGAN)—The Board of Education of this place has got into trouble with the female teachers in its schools. It has lately been studying hygiene and high art together with theories as to the kind of figures calisthenics ought to produce if persisted in by ladies. The consequence is that the board came to the conclusion that its women teachers would look more Grecian and graceful if they abstained from wearing corsets, and orders were accordingly issued to the ladies to discontinue using those articles of attire. The board explained that in its opinion corsets interfered with the teacher's efficiency in taking graceful poses, that the ladies would look more "elegant" without the proscribed garment, and that the result would be the teachers would be able the more effectively to impress their scholars and educate them in an appreciation of the beautiful. The teachers are revolting.—*Dalziel*.

fifty children throw their heads far back. Teacher—"Now say, I am proud, for I know who I am." The children do as they are told. Teacher—"Heads on the left shoulder. Look upward, say:—"How beautiful that is!" (Expressions of astonishment). "Heads on the right shoulder! do you think you can mock me. Heads down, say—"All my money is gone.'" Imagine a whole class saying, "all my money is gone," to practise the expression of sorrow. Finally, a few other exercises to express increasing pleasure. Teacher—"Children, pay strict attention. What would you say if you were to receive an orange now?" all smile. "If you had a banana,"—broader smiles. "If you were to get a piece of candy?" Laughter. "But ice-cream?" Shouts of laughter. "So," says the teacher. "Now the class is prepared to read the piece." Of course the children read with expression; that is to say, every child in the worst possible manner of mimicry reads the story in which Katie says to Mollie, "Be very good while I am gone, and do not get into mischief." (Dr. Rice qd. by Professor Waetzoldt). In South Dakota the superintendent reports that the teaching of the evil effects of alcohol and tobacco is so effective "that nearly every pupil is ready to give a temperance lecture at a moment's warning." It may, however, be pointed out, that such teaching is not altogether a monopoly of America, and in spite of these occasional peculiarities, much admirable work is done in American schools. Language is carefully taught. The children speak out loudly and clearly like German children do, and not like our children too often do. This is probably why most Americans are much better conversationalists than English people. The children's self-activity is cultivated in the American school, they are taught to dig

out knowledge for themselves.\* In every school the children are taught to use Webster's Unabridged. Practically all urban American schools have a fine library besides which the public library of every American town provides suitable books and special accommodation for all children who can write their names. American pupils are expected to find out knowledge for themselves, and so the school library is an indispensable portion of the equipment of every efficient American school.

Some of these school libraries, especially those of the high schools, are the acme of comfort and utility, and in them much of the total school time is often spent.

The helplessness of the American pupil in his teacher's hands is not evident to him or to us. His self-respect is preserved and his self-resource cultivated. He leaves school ready to begin the real education of life, *i.e.*, self-training, and naturally alert, ambitious, and confident, he develops into the pushful, resourceful, American citizen of to-day. Although this method of teaching may have been originally adopted because the teacher was untrained, yet there can be no doubt that the system has great advantages and admirably suits American characteristics.

The foreign observer in criticising the English teacher is apt to lay stress upon what he considers the poor discipline of an English class. This inborn restlessness is a national characteristic of which we as a people may reasonably be proud, and most chary in curbing. It is this restlessness that has carried our folk round the globe. Often this busy hum, this continual restlessness of the

\* "One may say that the German Exhibition showed above all what is done for the pupils, while the United States Exhibition contained that which is done by the pupils." (Dr. Lagerstedt of Stockholm.)

British class-room is the surest evidence of the children's self-activity. Is it not preferable to the deadly stillness of a "well-disciplined" school? In any case it is not the difficulty to the English teacher that his critic imagines.

English training-college teachers and professors have long since known that the first lesson the future teacher has to learn is to maintain discipline, consequently this training receives very careful treatment from the first. Hence what to another teacher would be a task absorbing a large proportion of his energy has become to the trained English teacher a mere matter of habit, largely automatic. Little of his total energy is absorbed in this essential matter. A German or American teacher would, I grant you, find practically all his energy required in merely securing discipline in an English class-room, but that would prove nothing more than that he did not understand the boys. The trained English teacher would seem to be, on the whole, a fair mean between the German and American teacher. His training has especially fitted him for the practical work of teaching. He is a master of the technique of the class-room and the practical details of instruction.

He may lack the deeper pedagogic training, the philosophical grasp, the ripeness, so to speak, of the German, and also the vivacity and enthusiasm of the good American teacher, but, on the other hand, there is a thoroughness and conscientiousness in his work, combined with resource, which enable him to triumph over difficulties that would prove insuperable to a less practically trained teacher.

His initiative and resource are, I venture to think, higher than his German colleague's and his technical outfit as a teacher more thorough than that of the American teacher. The incubus of educational tradition does not

press as heavily on the American as on the English, nor on the English as much as on the German teacher.

His teaching is more oral than the American but less than the German ; he uses text-books much more than the German but much less than the American. Finally, whatever may be the faults of English teaching they must not in common fairness be laid at the door of the English teacher, but at that of Mr. Robert Lowe who invented the system of payment by results.

Fortunately that has passed away, and there is appearing in our teachers a finer spirit, a keener interest in the purely pedagogic side of their calling, a higher sense of the dignity, privileges, and obligations of their profession, which are full of the happiest auguries for the future. Finally let it be said that the good teacher is a cosmopolitan ; he is not confined to the Old or New World.

The written work of our English pupil is considered to be superior to that of the American both in neatness and style. Accuracy and other virtues engendered by a systematic and careful training are characteristic of the English pupil, whilst vivacity and originality are characteristic of the American pupil. Civic duty and patriotism are carefully cultivated both in the American and German urban school ; in England both are studiously neglected.

Arithmetic absorbs more time in the English and American than in the German school ; indeed an American Superintendent tells me that it is the fetish of the American school, and another American says, "In our country schools arithmetic is a fetish ; no subdivision of the book and no problem in the book may be omitted ; 'to go through the arithmetic' is the ambition of the child, and the ambition of the parent for the child." [Report U.S. Bureau, 1893-4.]

The needlework of the English girls is superior to that



of either the American or German girl, and cookery, laundry work, and cottage gardening are more generally taught in the English school than in the other two schools. Physical training receives more attention in England and America than in the German School, but this is supposed to be compensated for by the subsequent two years' military service, but no such training ever engenders the valuable virtues of the playground.

The degree of illiteracy of these countries is as follows :—

TABLE A.

				DATE.
England and Wales...	6.4	per cent men	7.3	per cent women...1891
Scotland.....	3.4	„ „	5.3	„ „ ...1891
Ireland.....	19.4	„ „	19.4	„ „ ...1891
Germany.....	0.24	„ „	.....	.....1894
United States.....	13.3	„ „	and women.....	.....1894
France.....	7.4	„ „	.....	.....1890

Americans, however, reasonably enough point out that the incoming population, composed as it is largely of the scourgings of Europe, accounts for this high figure for the States. In some of the Southern States, however, *illiteracy is actually increasing faster than the increase of population.*

The amount annually devoted to the education of each child in the States is £3 15s. od., in England, £2 9s. 11d., and in Prussia, £1 14s. od.

Although America is spending nobly upon education, yet in but few civilised countries is the educational outlook, in some respects, so full of serious import to the community.

The most serious matter, perhaps, is the fact that in some of the largest American cities thousands, and even, in some cases, tens of thousands of children are said to be growing up destitute of a school education. In New York, Chicago, St. Louis, and Philadelphia the numbers

are appalling. This is due to lack of school places, and the excuse urged is that it is impossible to keep up with the growth of these cities. But in reply it may be urged that some German cities have grown equally rapidly yet no such state of things is allowed to occur there. In the whole of the kingdom of Prussia there are less children kept from school for this reason than in New York city alone. The Empire city in its despair has organised half-day schools to minimise the danger. The fact that the annual vote for education in this city is not only insufficient to provide these needed premises, but sometimes even to pay its teachers, is perhaps the better guide to the true cause, though the substitution of huge tenements for ordinary dwelling houses has, in recent years, had something to do with bringing this state of things about.

I have tabulated the figures for some of the larger American cities for the year 1897-8.

CITY.	NUMBER ENROLLED.	PLACES PROVIDED.	DEFICIENCY.
New York . . .	471,251	385,091	86,160
Chicago . . .	236,219	220,575	15,664
San Francisco . . .	50,101	39,495	10,606
Boston . . .	85,320	77,835	7,485
Detroit . . .	37,131	32,599	4,532
New Orleans . . .	29,522	23,383	6,139
Philadelphia . . .	173,363	146,475	26,888
Milwaukee . . .	40,210	38,424	1,786
Buffalo . . .	56,718	53,071	3,647
St. Louis . . .	75,922	66,722	9,200
Grand Rapids . . .	21,434	15,928	5,506
Washington . . .	44,698	42,437	2,351
Indianapolis . . .	33,853	18,830	15,023
Mobile . . .	8,092	7,000	1,092
Atlanta . . .	14,338	10,555	3,783
Minneapolis . . .	33,673	32,000	1,673
St. Paul . . .	23,790	22,356	1,434
Cincinnati . . .	44,635	44,700	—

The only localities in England and Wales which show a deficiency of school places at present are these towns :—

TOWN.	NUMBER ENROLLED.	PLACES PROVIDED.	DEFICIENCY.
Bootle . . .	9,321	8,696	625
Coventry . . .	10,521	10,449	72
Gateshead . . .	21,156	20,252	904
Gloucester . . .	7,894	7,539	255
Ipswich . . .	11,348	10,999	349
Lincoln . . .	8,243	7,877	366
Middlesboro' . . .	16,392	16,214	178
Newport, Mon. . .	12,890	12,716	174
Northampton . . .	11,953	11,839	114
Southampton . . .	16,990	16,252	738
South Shields . . .	18,203	17,877	326
Sunderland . . .	26,908	25,166	1,742
Walsall . . .	15,136	14,030	1,106
Yarmouth . . .	9,563	9,108	455
Cardiff . . .	30,661	29,055	1,606

For the Kingdom of Prussia in 1890 the figures were :—Children of school age, 5,299,310; of these

Attending public schools, ... ..	93 per cent.
"    private    "    ... ..	5½ per cent.
Had no room, ... ..	3,239
Did not attend owing to physical or mental incapacity, ... ..	10,041
Failed to attend without sufficient excuse, ... ..	945 or 1 $\frac{3}{16}$ of 1 per cent.

In England and Wales there are more than sufficient places for all children of school age. In 1899 there were in the Counties 4,757,687 places for 4,112,501 scholars enrolled, and in the County Boroughs there were 1,683,458 places for 1,559,902 scholars.

American official statistics show that the number of children enrolled on the school registers is larger in proportion to the population than in any other country.

Unfortunately the laws of compulsory attendance, where they do exist, are rarely enforced.

In 1897-8 only 68 per cent. of the numbers enrolled attended school regularly. Further, the American school is not opened, as is the English school, for *at least* 200 days.

In 1897-8 the average school year for the whole of the States was 144.3 days.

Rhode Island,	191 days.	Massachusetts,	186 days.
Michigan, ...	160 „	North Carolina,	68.8 „
Arkansas, ...	69 „		

In other words, the average American child will receive from three to five years of school instruction of 200 days; the average English and German child will get quite seven years.\*

Children leave school early in the States as well as in England, particularly the boys, who, it has been said, as they grow older rather resent being taught by female teachers.

“In the classes composed of children from ten years and upwards there was an increasing preponderance of girls. It is stated that over 50 per cent. of the children who ever enter school leave before the age of ten. If this be so, a much larger proportion of boys do not attend school after that age.”—*Grasby*.

In spite of such facts an American writes, “That the public system of education has been carried in our country during the last half century to a degree of per-

\* Number of years schooling (of 200 days) each individual receives in both public primary and secondary School in 1899 :—

	Years.		Years.		Years.
N. Atlantic Div.,	5.67	S. Central Div.,	2.88	Western Division,	5.28
S. Atlantic Div.,	2.78	N. Central Div.,	5.14		

fection heretofore unknown to any country of the world none will deny ; and that to-day the United States is far in advance of all other nations in this respect will also be admitted."

Wiser Americans, however, bitterly bewail this state of things. Truant officers have been appointed in New York State, as well as three State inspectors whose duty it is to assist or compel the local authorities to enforce the law. We at home know how futile such efforts are, unless backed by a rigorous administration of the law. Elsewhere we hear of citizens banding themselves together for using *moral suasion* to get the children to school !

The attendance in Germany is, I consider, perfect—that is to say, there is practically no avoidable leakage. In France, too, a fairly high figure is reached. These results are not altogether due to a keener love of education, but it is, I imagine, to both being military States, where parents obey the law as a matter of course. The law of compulsory attendance is so clear and so automatic that it never occurs to a German parent to attempt to evade it.

"Make your educational laws strict and your criminal laws may be gentle, but leave youth its liberty and you will have to dig dungeons for old age," says Ruskin.

Every birth in Germany is recorded, and twice a year a census of the school population of the district is taken by the police and the list given to the school master. Every absence is reported to the police by the teacher, and they make enquiries and, if necessary, fine the parents. That is all.

In England and Wales the average attendance of all children is 81.6 per cent., but of older children—that is of comparable age to German children—the figures are

87.5 per cent. One of the main causes for the better attendance in Germany is that there are more schools in proportion to the population than in England. In Prussia there are 36,138 public elementary schools, in England only 15,199 (excluding infants' schools). Children rarely walk any considerable distance to school—in fact, only one child out of every 25 walks one and a half miles or more to school in the Fatherland. In the whole of Prussia there is one school to every 874 inhabitants; in England, one to every 1,550 inhabitants, and in America, one to every 300 people.

The Prussian elementary schools are practically all denominational. There are 24,487 Protestant, 10,725 Catholic, 246 Jewish, and 680 "*Mixed*" schools. The city schools average 418 pupils each, and those of the villages and country 109 pupils each.

The German teacher is pedagogically the finest trained teacher in the world. For practical skill in the handling of large classes the English teacher is unequalled. For spontaneity, vivacity, and enthusiasm it would be difficult to find a peer of the American teacher. But these are generalities.

The German teacher is trained for six years,—three years in a preparatory normal school where his elementary training is deepened but not widened much, and three years in the normal school where a similar training is given, together with the special technical training required for his professional duties.

During the last year he teaches in the model school for from six to ten hours weekly. Every German Training College must have attached to it not only a graded but also an ungraded model school.

A foreign language may be, but only occasionally is, taken up by the student. Students in Training Colleges

are not allowed to take notes during a lecture. The Germans hold that taking notes distracts the listener and diminishes seriously the value of the lecture. Germans are invariably good listeners.

German educational reformers, like English reformers, are asking for a widening and enrichment of the normal school curriculum, and for utilising the secondary school (Realschule) for the training of teachers.

The graduate of a German Training College does not receive his full diploma until he has passed a further examination in pedagogy at the end of at least two years. During these two years he is carefully watched and helped by his training college teachers. He is then appointed to a school where, in some provinces, he is expected to stay at least three years. He possesses absolute security of tenure, and is entitled to a sick pension after ten years' service, and a full service pension at sixty-five. He is fairly well paid, and enjoys a good social status. That the profession is popular is shown by the fact that about one-fifth of all German teachers are sons of teachers.

Women teachers have not hitherto received fair treatment in Germany. They come generally from a higher social class than the men, being largely the daughters of military or professional men, too poor to provide the dowry so indispensable for a German girl's marriage.

These women have generally been through a middle or secondary school course and have sat for the examination of secondary teachers, but have failed in some one or other subject, and so get only the lower diploma—that licenses them to teach in the primary school.

The Training College accommodation for women is also very inadequate, and even the men teachers in girls' schools are rather looked down upon by the male teachers

of other schools. Altogether the position of women teachers, or even a teacher of girls, is not altogether a desirable one in Germany, but this feeling will doubtless disappear in time. The head teacher of all girls' schools and at least one other teacher must be males. These men teachers have a very pleasant sympathetic way with the girls.

The English teacher, under favourable circumstances, begins to teach, or rather assist, when about fifteen to sixteen years of age, and for three years spends half a day in the school. The remainder of the day is spent at a special school for pupil teachers, where the instruction is given generally by University graduates who are also trained teachers, and under favourable conditions as regards equipment and accommodation. There are probably few institutions in the kingdom of the work of which less is popularly known than these central schools. To compare the condition of the pupil teacher of to-day with that of say ten years ago is foolish, and many observers and critics of the English teacher have failed to recognise or fully appreciate the revolution these institutions have silently effected.

The English teacher is said to have two years' training ; it would be more correct to say that under favourable circumstances he will receive five years' thoroughly sound training. The number of University graduates too in our primary schools, though small, is increasing, and a rapidly increasing proportion of English teachers are receiving what is practically a University training in our Day Training Colleges.

No, the real defect of our English trained teacher is that we haven't got enough of him. Seventy-two per cent. of English male teachers, and forty-nine per cent. of female teachers are trained. If both are combined there



are only fifty-eight per cent. of our certificated teachers who are college trained; the others *are* "trained," it is true, and have passed precisely the same examination, but have not received the advantages of a normal school training. Behind this insufficiency of the college trained teacher is the inadequate training college accommodation in England. The present training college accommodation suffices for a teaching force of 42,000 instead of 62,000. Prussia and Germany generally are able to turn out annually just the number of trained teachers required for the schools of the country. This they are able to do with great exactitude, owing to the preparatory lists drawn out by the inspectors and provincial councils of the probable requirements of the district for each year. German Training Colleges are smaller and more numerous than ours, and are generally located in small provincial towns.

No unqualified teachers, such as our Article 68, are employed in the German school excepting for the teaching of needlework. This, in rural districts, is taught by the master's wife, or a woman from the village. I wonder how many American teachers in out of the way places would find that that was the only article in the English Code which just about covered their qualifications! Neither America nor Germany has anything quite similar to our pupil teacher, but in the schools of Chicago there are what are called "school cadets," who are young people who intend becoming teachers. They assist in teaching all day, and are paid seventy-five cents for the toil. In Germany too, a boy of fourteen or fifteen is often found helping the master to teach his school of from eighty to a hundred children. These boys usually develop into fully fledged teachers. That there is something to be said for our system is the opinion of America's

greatest authority, Dr. W. T. Harris: "In my opinion we have something to learn from this monitorial system (*i.e.*, the P. T. system of England). The kindergarten and ungraded school in rural districts can, it seems to me, adopt a form of the Lancasterian system which would serve a good purpose. The cost of the Kindergarten may be reduced to one-fifth of what it is under the present plan, and the ungraded school may train its higher pupils more effectively as pupil teachers than by the present stereotyped system." And one of the leaders of German pedagogy, who is himself a rural teacher, has strongly advocated the introduction of the pupil teacher system into the German country school.

Indeed it would seem that the rural school anywhere in the world cannot, under present circumstances and with reasonable economy, be worked without employing persons of the nature of pupil teacher and Article 68. It is largely the reluctance to employ such that causes the fearful understaffing of many German rural schools. There is a wonderful similarity in the difficulties of the rural school all the world over. A man crosses a ditch in much the same way whether in Timbuctoo or California.

Of the English qualified teacher 34 per cent. of him is male, and practically the same proportions (*i.e.* 31 per cent.) hold for the American teacher, whereas of the German teacher there is only about 13 per cent. female. Of the whole teaching staff of the English school however, 75 per cent. is female. In England as in America the rapidly growing preponderance of the female teacher is mainly due to economic reasons, but in Germany this is not so much so.

Curiously enough, or perhaps obviously enough, where

education is most advanced in the States, there the female teacher thrives best:—

*e.g.*, In Chicago only 6.6 per cent. of total teachers are male.

In New York State City teachers 8.0 per cent. are male, and of the State teachers 21.0 per cent. are male.

And of normal school pupils the females form :—

93 per cent. in Massachusetts.

99 per cent. in Connecticut.

100 per cent. in New Hampshire.

The American male teacher will soon be as extinct as the bison. At present his habitat is mainly the backwoods and morasses of the Southern States.

Of the American teacher the most diverse views may reasonably be held, for she is as diverse as she is numerous. No general statement of her capacity can be made not even for the teachers of each State.

Towns vary, States vary, Massachusetts for example, has nearly 40 per cent. of its teachers graduates of normal colleges, and the New England States generally have a considerable proportion of teachers who have received some training.\* But this training is often rather meagre.

“According to the judgment of a very competent American school teacher, the work done in normal schools does not compare with that of a German seminary.”

Indeed an American writer asserts that “A preparation in pedagogics for the profession is almost entirely wanting; in fact, the principle has been enunciated that a teacher in the public schools need not know more than he must teach, and that a knowledge of his text

\*“No State makes a better showing than Massachusetts, but in 1897-8 only 38.5 per cent. of her teachers in public schools had received normal instruction, and only 33.5 per cent. were normal graduates.”—*Hinsdale*.

book is sufficient." Even the principals of primary schools will deny the need of professional training for the teacher. The fact that some of the finest Training Colleges perhaps in the world are American in no way affects the above statements.

Of all American primary teachers it has been said, that one third have passed through a normal school of some kind or other. Where the remaining two-thirds obtain their qualifications is somewhat difficult to say. "It may be presumed that less than one-sixth of the supply of new teachers come from the training schools especially designed to educate teachers" (Dr. Harris).

"But the true professional competency of our teachers taken all in all, does not become fully apparent until we consider that not more than a small percentage of persons engaged in teaching in the public schools of this country are normal school graduates. Of those teaching, besides the normal school graduates, others have simply attended a normal school, high school or academy, for one or more terms, while a very large number of licences to teach are granted to those whose education does not extend beyond that received at a grammar school, with or without a little extra coaching." (Dr. Rice). It may be pointed out that the American grammar school is simply our "senior mixed" *i.e.* a primary school for children between ten and fourteen years old.

The system of certification by which the local school authority licenses its teachers for a varying number of years, has a double effect. On the one hand it unsettles the teachers, and gives them no security of tenure, not even that of the English teacher with his life certificate; on the other hand, it prevents stagnation, and encourages the introduction of new ideas and experiments.

In the State of New York, of all the teachers employed—

1,115 received a diploma from the State Superintendent.

3,927 held normal school certificates.

28,536 were licensed by local officers.

This renewal of the certificate is, in the majority of cases, a mere formality, but whereas the German teacher has an official life of twenty-five years, that of the American is five years. In spite of this, "The office of teaching in the average American school is perhaps the only one in the world that can be retained indefinitely in spite of the poorest incompetence." (Dr. Rice).

Just as, in considering the strength of the English teaching staff, it was necessary if we would form a true estimate of its comparative power, to consider not only the college trained, but also the school trained teacher, as well as the preliminary training now so largely given in the special school for pupil teachers, so, in considering and estimating the technical outfit of the American teacher, we should obtain a very inadequate estimate of the real strength, if we neglected to consider the many subsidiary agencies for training which have been so highly and largely developed in America.

In the first place comes the School Superintendent, who is as a rule the executive officer of the State, County, or Township educational Board. This Board be it remembered, has no Whitehall to stimulate or moderate its educational zeal as may seem necessary. Of its own sweet will it may make of its land an educational Paradise or desert.

Hence in a pushing, go-ahead town, anxious to attract a good class of residents, one of the chief attractions offered may be a magnificent set of schools. A few leagues away parsimony may take ample revenge.

Let us return to the School Superintendent, who, in the best circumstances, is a highly trained expert, but in other cases too often an astute politician. The State Superintendent for Maine in his report for 1896 writes—“Of the School Superintendents (in this State) 35 per cent, are farmers, the rest are teachers, physicians, house-keepers, merchants, lawyers, clergymen, carpenters, lumbermen, labourers, druggists, journalists, fishermen, postmasters, engineers, painters, stonecutters, blacksmiths, and one each of express agents, book-keepers, guides, saw-filers, surveyors, ferrymen, barbers, painters, manufacturers, haberdashers, railroad postal clerks, dairymen, and spinsters. Four per cent devote all their time to this business. The rest devote such time as they are willing to take from their personal affairs.”

One of the chief duties of the Superintendent is to train the teachers up to his methods and ideals. His tenure of office will probably not be long; meanwhile he will probably make things hum. So much power is concentrated in the Superintendent's hands that, for the time being, he is the educational autocrat of the district. He sometimes selects the text books, invariably prescribes in detail the methods, defines the curriculum and fixes the ideals. Indeed there is no room left for the teacher's initiative. This is all very well for a poor, untrained teacher, but for a well trained teacher it must be painfully galling. “The truth is, that as a rule our teachers are too weak to stand alone, and therefore need constantly to be propped up by the supervisory staff.” (Dr. Rice). I have by me an admirable scheme based upon the soundest principles of modern pedagogy, drawn out by the Superintendent of Schools in a Californian town. It is really excellent, and affords

evidence of how the light is encircling the globe. It is a far cry to California, yet the land of the setting sun would seem to be coming the land of the rising sun. But, however admirable, such a detailed scheme in method would never be tolerated in England nor even in Germany.

The American teacher is treated like a child. She is told what to eat and how to eat, what to teach and how to teach. Perhaps one may summarise the whole matter thus :—

Germany gets a highly trained teacher and leaves him largely alone. The Government inspector sees him once in about four or five years. (The constant visits of the parochial inspector are of course neglected in making this statement.)

England gets a less highly trained teacher, gives him free play as to method, but sends her official to see him twice a year.

America gets a teacher and teaches him, and sends her official to see him many times a year.

Let us hark back to other subsidiary methods of training the teacher in America. It is said that American teachers are always endeavouring to improve their professional knowledge, whereas the average English teacher only rarely follows up the pedagogical training received in the Training College. It is certain from the number of American periodicals and books on educational topics that there is a much larger circle of educational readers in America than in England.

Even English writers on education obtain a wider circulation in America than at home. Teachers' meetings again are much more highly organised in America and in Germany, and are less concerned with the politics than with the pedagogics of education than they are in

England. Meetings of this kind are held monthly in Germany, which the teachers are compelled to attend, their expenses being defrayed by the State. The district inspector presides, and the papers read are on pedagogic questions of interest to the teachers, and such conferences are concluded by a convivial concert and supper which serves to cement the pleasant feeling of *camaraderie* so essential to the success of the profession.

In America too the School Boards pay their teachers' expenses and compel them to attend these meetings. These may extend over three or four days, and the public attend largely and take a keen interest in the discussions. Railway companies and hotel proprietors offer special facilities for such gatherings.

However, after all is said and done, it is the opinion of Americans themselves that matters educational will never be on a sound footing in America until a real profession of teaching has been established. At present such a profession can hardly be said to exist. An American official report states: "In the United States the profession of teaching seems to be a kind of waiting room in which the young girl awaits a congenial ulterior support, and the young man a more advantageous position." But here again one must be wary of drawing conclusions thus. In America a man and woman too plays many parts; no profession is closed, no career barred to the enterprising American.

He may indeed be everything by turn and nothing long: a lawyer to-day, a superintendent to-morrow, a divine on Sunday. Teaching is in this respect like other professions in America, and the philosopher may perhaps wisely pause to consider whether such a state of affairs is not in accordance with the eternal fitness of things where you have a big people settling down in a new



home. America is crystallising out, and as yet it is difficult to say what shape the crystal will take on.

Finally a word as to payment of teachers. For the year 1897-8 the average annual pay of American teachers was for males £109, females £93, calculated on the monthly pay sheet. For the same year, 1897-8, the average pay of English teachers was for males £124, females £83. The salaries of English headmasters has increased 35 per cent., and of headmistresses 48 per cent., during the last twenty-five years.

In the kingdom of Prussia the average pay of male teachers, according to statistics collected in 1896, was for city teachers £96, and for country teachers £64, or a general average for male teachers of £77 per annum. For female teachers the average pay in city schools was £66, and in country schools £54, or a general average of £61. The female teacher in America gets 85 per cent., in Prussia 80 per cent., and in England only 67 per cent. of the salary awarded to the male teacher. The smaller difference in America is probably due to the relatively higher efficiency of the bulk of the American female teachers as compared to the bulk of male teachers. A pedagogically trained male American teacher is somewhat of a *rara avis*.

It must be remembered, however, in comparing these figures that the length of the school year, like the buying capacity of money, varies considerably in these three States, and also that in Prussia all schools have a dwelling house attached, and that firing is allowed for the school house, and further that in Germany and England teachers are entitled to pensions. Moreover all German country schools are provided with a garden for the use of the master. These items, namely, house, garden, and firing, were duly considered in the above figures for Prussia,

but not in those of England and America. Of English schoolmasters 25 per cent., and of mistresses 12½ per cent., are provided with school residences.

It is a significant little fact that teachers are not paid during absences from school or during holidays in the States.

Let me say something as to the attitude of the school to the people. In America it is customary for any visitor to a city of any claims to progress to be shown round the schools. As a rule the American school is the finest architectural structure in the town. So customary is this visiting that chairs are placed in each class-room for the convenience of callers. One of two results probably follows, either the class work is disturbed or a certain priggishness is liable to be engendered. American teachers admit this, and some of them would gladly see this custom abolished.

In Germany a parent visiting a school without a special permission from the authorities (which is rarely granted), is fined. No encouragement is given to a parent to take any active part in the training of his child. It is true that once a year parents are invited to the school "examination," which is the only examination that the school holds, but every item of the programme is carefully rehearsed beforehand by pupil and teacher before being submitted to so critical an audience. Many of the teachers would like to see even this little pleasantry abolished.

The picture of an irate mother exhausting her vocabulary on the school doorstep occasionally seen in England makes one inclined to feel that there is something in the German view of the matter.

But these facts are significant of the school and State attitude towards the people.

The working classes in Germany take no active interest in the school. In England they vote at Board elections; in America they take a pride in them and show you round. After all, the differences are those of a bureaucratic and a democratic State. [England is the half-way house.]

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### POSTSCRIPT.

As I lay my pen down, strains of music reach me. There across the way is a group of German lads of from thirteen to twenty years of age. They seem weary after many days' travel through this pleasant land of England. Sad, stern faces with set jaws they seem to pull forth the music automatically from their strings. What brings these lads so far from home? Why have they left their beautiful Fatherland behind, and why do they hurry thus to the West? See how their faces brighten as the evening sun pours his light into their faces. What are they thinking of? What means this picture? It is the children crying for the light, for freedom, for self-development. Behind them are restraint, bureaucracy and conscription;\* in front they see life and liberty. Small wonder is it that these German children become American citizens so readily. Of what advantage is it that a man gains the whole world of knowledge and loses his own soul. Better the intellectual levity of America than the cultured servitude of Europe. And as I muse, the lads break into fresh music, not indeed "Der Wacht am Rhein," but—"The New Jerusalem."

\* I have heard it stated that conscription is popular in Germany, but I have also read that there are 20,000 desertions annually from the German army. I wonder which is true?

## THE ENGLISH SCHOOL AND ITS GERMAN RIVAL

COMPARISONS are, it is said, odious, particularly to the objects compared ; nevertheless, the basis of all knowledge is comparison. The maxim mentioned is, you will find, most readily quoted by those who fear it most.

In comparing two systems of education many requisites are necessary. For example, every care should be taken that due appreciation of every element on both sides of the equation has been made—next, the personal factor in the equation should have been eliminated, and many other factors must be considered before a comparison can be made that will be above criticism. It is evident that to make such a comparison is not within my power, nor, were it, would it be my wish. I prefer the world of nature as seen by the lark rather than by the ostrich ; what one loses in accuracy of detail one gains in breadth of outline. The many inequalities, peculiarities if you will, are largely lost, but the general beauty of the whole becomes more evident.

These two national systems of education are thoroughly characteristic. The German system is built on a philosophical basis throughout, and when one is most inclined to criticise, one feels that logically the German is unassailable ; fortunately for us, life is not logical. The English system, on the other hand, is

like the British Constitution ; it works remarkably well on the whole, but no one quite knows how or why.

I have said that these two systems of education are characteristic. Let me amplify this statement. England is essentially a democratic country ; Germany, even to-day, is not. Class distinctions are very keen in Germany, and it is extremely difficult for a man to pass from one class of society to another. The educational ladder of which we in Wales are reasonably proud, is neither in existence nor indeed is it, I believe, desired in Germany. The primary schools of Germany are intended for and are utilised mainly by one class, *i.e.*, the labouring class ; the lower middle class send their children at nine years of age (and even before)\* for a six years' course to the Realschule, which is socially the class of school immediately above the Volksschule or people's school. The Realschule teaches no classical language, and the careers open to its graduated pupils are limited ; then comes the Oberrealschule for another class ; next you have Progymnasium and Real-gymnasium, and, finally, the Gymnasium the *élite* of the secondary schools for children of the higher classes, and with every career in the land open to its pupils. It is very difficult for a child to pass from one school to another, and the future career for a German child is generally fixed for him by his parents when he is nine years old. Another feature deserves mention. A highly-organized military State

\*The secondary schools of Germany have generally a preparatory or Vorschule attached, where children from the age of 6 to 9 years attend. The teachers are primary teachers, but the school is essentially a class-school, not a Volksschule. Where such Vorschule does not exist, then these middle-class children do attend the Volksschule (*e.g.*, Bavaria), from 6 to 9 years of age.

like France or Germany will always enjoy good attendance ; parents and children obey the voice of the State as the voice of God ; further, the systems of such States, educational, social and political, always make a good *picture*, and as far as the form is concerned will compare favourably with, say, the educational systems of democratic countries like England and America. Yet I believe that the most valuable factors, such as the elasticity, originality and self-help which characterise the democratic system, and which cannot be summed up and estimated in a comparison such as I am making, are of much greater value than that beautiful symmetry and philosophical unity that undoubtedly characterise the more highly organised system of Germany.

In this paper I do not propose going into much detail, nor to pit school against school. I shall simply compare the two mental pictures I possess—namely the good German primary (urban and rural) school with what I think is a type of a good primary school in England or Wales. Let me, however, state here one, general fact, and that is, that there is greater uniformity of efficiency in German than in English schools. I believe there is a much greater difference between the bad and the good English primary school than there is between the good and bad German school.

A child is not of school age in Germany until it is six years old ; consequently, Germany possesses no system of infant schools such as we possess. It has been asserted that happy is such a country and such children, that we English get our children into school and send them out of school too early ; that, however, is not, I think, the opinion of foreigners themselves, who are restrained from imitating our infant school system mainly by the expense. I am not disposed

personally to deny that, as an ideal, the longer your child can be kept out of the cramping influence of the school and in close touch with Nature, the better will his training be, but that is an ideal. Such a training is possible in the country, but absolutely impossible in English or German towns. The infant schools may be a disagreeable necessity, nevertheless they are a necessity, and as the German is daily becoming more and more urban, so is this necessity of a system of infant schools pressing more and more heavily upon him.

Consequently, in the large towns private societies are attempting to cope with this difficulty by organising Kindergartens for children under six years of age. Such schools are in no way recognised by the State or municipality. Indeed, many German teachers look upon these infant schools with undisguised contempt, and my impression is that Froebel is a striking example of the saying that a prophet is without honour in his own country.

Besides the proper teachers in these German Kindergartens, there are also so-called pupil teachers, who are qualifying themselves as nursery governesses, or even as nurses. These do not teach but watch the proper teachers. These pupil teachers' time-table includes one hour daily for study of the philosophy of the Kindergarten. Imagine an English mother requiring her new nurse to write a critical summary of Froebel's Law of Unity. Ten children to one teacher, and all seated around a table, form the class. Talking is encouraged and formal lessons prohibited.

It is difficult to compare such a training place as this German Kindergarten with the English infant school. Instead of 10, the teacher often has 60 children, with the natural result that to make the machine move at all

it must be largely worked as a machine. For one mind (and that normal) to attempt to train simultaneously 60 different activities is evidently impossible. Hence the 60 different activities must be consolidated, say, into 10, and so disappears, at one fell swoop, by one revolution of the educational wheel, all that valuable diversity of type which nature has so generously provided us with. How much trouble "le bon Dieu" would have saved us all if He had given us only one type to deal with.

Despite this appalling difficulty, however, the resource of the English teacher has often risen superior to the surroundings, and there are, I think, many English infant schools which, in some respects, are unequalled in the Fatherland. The building of our infant schools is often much superior—indeed, the German Kindergarten rarely possesses premises adequate to the good work done. Our infant schools are better furnished and decorated; the hours of attendance of the children are not so long. For example, a German Kindergarten is open for six hours daily. Much of this time, however, is spent in the playground, under the trees, or in the sand-pit. There is more vigour and vivacity in English than in German children, and, moreover, the English infant school does not confine itself closely to Froebelian games, and therefore the exercises are often brighter and more vivacious.

For example, the other day I was in an infant school where proper breathing exercises preparatory to the vocal music were taught. In another school I saw the infants go through a square dance admirably, and the marching was simply excellent. Another admirable exercise which the babies indulged in was a jumping exercise. In another school the older infants attended the school swimming bath weekly, and were being trained in the elements of swimming by a properly-qualified



instructor. Around an extending blackboard in the central hall of another school I saw the little ones busy at free-arm drawing, sketching, with ready skill, objects connected with their nature lessons. It is unnecessary for me to describe the exercises in brush work, cane plaiting, and modelling, etc., etc., which serve to prove that, despite the large classes, our infant teachers are able to cultivate the child's self-activity in many directions, and with much success. Still, it must be confessed that too rarely indeed is the infant school of England entitled to be called a true Kindergarten.

There are two matters I should like to touch upon here:—

1. It is a typically English characteristic (outwardly at any rate) to depreciate and criticise our own efforts in every direction. For example, we are often told that children do not leave school in France or Germany until 13 or 14. That is generally true, though a child may even now leave school in France at 11, provided he passes a certain examination. However, this gives the average French or German child a school life of seven or eight years. On the other hand, the average English child has a school life of eight or nine years.

Another point is the irregularity of attendance in our infant schools. In this case, however, there are no means of comparison, as no record of attendance is kept in the German Kindergarten. Personally, I think that high average attendance in an infant school is not to be looked for, as a rule. There must be, surely, some days in the year when children between three and five years of age cannot, and, indeed, should not, be sent to school. The school law of attendance in Germany is so clear that everyone understands it, in England so complicated that only a few specialists have fathomed its depths. A fine, and

ultimately imprisonment, is the result of the parents' contumacy in Germany; in England, on the other hand, it is said that it pays parents to flout the law and employ the boy. But stronger than any law is public opinion, and public opinion is set against school absenteeism in Germany. A German parent who fails to send his boy to school loses at once that respect of his fellow citizens upon which his own self-respect is based. Two per cent. of absentees all the year round, occasionally five per cent. for town schools are the usual numbers given you. In London, on the other hand, 100,000 children are, I believe, absent from school every day. Things are better in other parts. I was in a large school the other day where, out of 699 names on registers, 698 were in attendance. The average attendance for the last five months at this school had been 100 per cent. In a London Board School I found 95 per cent. of the children present. But, as you know, these are the brilliant exceptions which prove the rule, that, roughly speaking, about one million children are daily absent from school in England and Wales. This is an absolutely dead loss, and will remain so until public opinion has been educated up to the German level in this matter.

Why not call in the policeman to help us to get the children into school as they do in Germany?

I would like to point out here that these abnormally high attendances call for quite as much critical investigation as abnormally low attendances. In one of these cases, at any rate, I saw a child in school who ought not to have been there. This poor boy had not been absent from school for five years, and so, for the sake of a brass medal, he was, I think, sacrificing what is of infinitely more value—a sound body.

Before proceeding to the curriculum of the primary

school let us compare the two school buildings, German and English.

The best primary schools in Germany are built on the class-room and corridor system, in three or four storeys, with accommodation for about 1,600 children. In the basement is a set of shower baths for washing the children weekly. The school has no central hall, but a magnificent gymnasium most elaborately, and indeed luxuriously, fitted up. Here the school assembles for prayers and singing, or for any exercises of a collective character.

The class-rooms, which all face the north, are fitted with dual desks. The beautifully clean walls are very bare, only pictures of the three Emperors, as a rule, relieving this monotony. The school as a whole is built of freestone and white brick, and surmounted by a clock tower. The corridors are tiled and have recesses for hats and cloaks. Here and there are umbrella stands. Along the corridor also are placed drinking fountains, but no lavatory accommodation appears to be provided. The class-rooms have block floors. There is a conference room, a head-master's room, and assistant teachers' room, together with a chart-room, and a room for weighing and measuring the children periodically. German school authorities provide suitable desks for children of different heights and sizes.

In the middle or higher grade schools, in addition, are lecture theatres for chemistry, physics and natural history. Only in Berlin and Munich are the girls taught cookery and laundry work. ✓

The English primary school is built on the class-room and central hall system. Huge mixed schools of 1,400 or 1,600 children, divided up into about 20 classes, are becoming the rule in some parts of England.

The organisation of such immense schools requires

unusual care, and I was surprised to notice recently how skilfully this is carried out. I saw a Yorkshire school of 1,200 children assemble in the central hall from their class-rooms, each child taking up a definite position according to his height and voice, and dismissed to the playground within five minutes. It was a magnificent bit of organisation, and most creditable to the care and patience of the teachers.

Several English schools have hip-baths, and swimming baths attached, where the children are taught diving and swimming. It is a characteristic fact that the Germans are content to wash their children; we not only wash them but teach them to swim as well.

The higher primary school of both England and Germany is generally ventilated on the Plenum system. I am somewhat dubious as to the merits of this system. German teachers and many English teachers speak enthusiastically in praise of it; on the other hand many English teachers are strongly condemnatory.

The English higher primary school generally possesses both chemical and physical laboratories, where the children themselves go through a course of training based on what is sometimes called the heuristic system, but which less pedantically may be called the "inventive" system. No such training in practical science is given to the German child. The German lecture theatres, however, are more elaborately fitted up than are the English.

The boys' higher primary course in an English school will also have rooms specially fitted for manual training in wood and metal.

A higher primary school which I recently visited possessed a magnificent annexe entirely devoted to manual training. This cost £7,000, and consisted of:—

1. A large shop of 60 benches fitted up for woodwork.
2. A large shop fitted up for iron work, and containing 12 vices, 2 forges (with a hand-fan blast) and anvils; 3 double lathes, one costing £35, the others £20 each; a screw-cutting machine (self-feeder).
3. A laundry-laboratory, fitted with sinks, etc., drying ovens, and all the paraphernalia for this work.
4. A cooking demonstration room, with five gas ovens in the demonstration table, two gas cooking stoves, and a very fine cooking range.

Besides these there were two large rooms for dining. Here the children eat their meals after these have been warmed by the caretaker.

Generally speaking, my impression is that these English school buildings compare fairly favourably with those of the German school. Our schools are better decorated, there is more appeal to the child's æsthetic faculty by means of beautiful pictures and busts. ✓

Finally, one word as to the state of the premises. German schools are always beautifully clean, and so are the children. These are habits which the schools themselves have inculcated. The children in Germany never enter school with dirty feet or hands, and if a stranger enters their room they rise and greet him in a pleasant manner. These habits of courtesy, orderliness, and neatness are most valuable habits which it is the privilege of the good school, both English and German, to confer upon its scholars.

#### CURRICULUM.

Before entering into a detailed discussion of the curricula of these two schools, let me recall to your minds two statements I have already made,—first, that

there is a philosophical basis to German education, and second that no practical work in science worth speaking of is done in German primary or higher primary schools, and indeed I may add in but few secondary schools either. Neither do we find that the girls are taught either cookery or laundry work, nor is manual instruction taken up in the German schools to anything like the extent that we might imagine; for example, in the wealthy and progressive city of Cologne not a single school gives manual training a place in its curriculum. Indeed, the German teacher is perfectly candid; he laughs at what he calls these new fads of the English teachers, manual training, technical education, and what not. Now I hope you will not misunderstand me. I am speaking of the average German teacher, neither Conservative nor Revolutionary, but the type. If Germany ousts England from the markets of the world it will not be because her technical training is better than ours; in fact, I think it is not; but because either her primary or secondary school, or both, are superior as training grounds to the corresponding English schools. Personally I believe that if England loses her commercial supremacy it will be because of her inefficient and inadequate system of secondary schools.

This neglect of the cultivation of the child's self-activity by the German school has led in the past to some very sharp criticisms by Germans themselves; for example, there is a remarkably outspoken criticism by Dr. Riedler, of the Royal Polytechnique at Charlottenburg, in the annual report of the Bureau of Education, U.S.A., for the year 1892, on this lack of practical training in the German school. There can be no doubt, I think, that this criticism is a just one, from *our* point of view, yet it is equally certain that the vast majority of

German secondary teachers are decidedly opposed to it, and I freely admit that there is no body of men in the world more competent to express an opinion on such a matter than the secondary teachers of Germany.

The curriculum of the German primary school illustrates what I said was characteristic of German education, namely, its philosophical basis. Subjects of a purely commercial or technical character hitherto have found no place in the curriculum of the German primary school. The function of this school is, it is considered, to train citizens, not craftsmen ; to such an extent is this principle carried that such subjects even as needlework, cookery and laundry work have hitherto received but scant treatment in the German primary school. However, the work of the philosopher is being modified by necessity. The factory in Germany, as it has done in England, is killing the arts of the home, and the mother's place is being taken by the teacher, so that in the large cities these subjects are forcing their way into the school curriculum.

Germany is essentially a land of special schools for different classes of society, and therefore a none too safe guide for us. Thus on the much-debated matter of commercial education we find that the Germans do not attempt to teach commercial subjects in the primary school. The German commercial school is essentially a continuation school for the class that use the Realschule ; and the curriculum differs from that of the Realschule only in laying still greater emphasis on modern languages and commercial subjects. It is, in fact, a special school for the sons of commercial men and a labourer's or workman's son has practically little chance of entering it. It is a special school, but in no sense a school for specialists. The linguistic training is sound and philosophical, and

pedagogically is, I venture to think, a basis of as good a training as that of the English public school with its training in Latin and Greek. Such commercial schools turn out, not clerks with certain technical accomplishments, but men who are fitted to take the part of leaders in the commercial world. The Germans educate their officers of commerce as thoroughly as their officers of the army, and the private in both receives a modicum of sound education which makes him, as a rule, a good citizen, but not an ambitious man.

The subjects of instruction in the German primary school are: Religion, German (reading, writing, spelling, and speaking), arithmetic, and the elements of geometry, drawing, history, geography, elementary science, drill or gymnastics for the boys, needlework for the girls, and singing; in fact the same subjects as are required for the English school by the new Code. In some of the largest German town schools they will also include a modern language, mathematics, shorthand, and domestic economy; but such schools are, I think, largely class schools and not ordinary Volksschulen.

The hours of attendance at school in Germany vary somewhat for different ages and localities, but are generally in summer, 8-12, 8-1, 8-2; and in winter 9-1, 9-2, 9-3, according to the class.

The children are dismissed according to the class, *e.g.*, the two lower classes spend 20 to 22 hours per week in school, the third class 28 hours, and the fourth and fifth 32 hours per week. There is no complete holiday like our Saturday or the French Thursday, but, generally, Wednesday and Saturday afternoons are free. Each lesson is 50 minutes long, followed by an interval of ten minutes. Set against this programme of 32 hours weekly that of the best English schools of 27½ hours weekly.



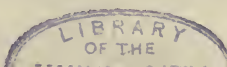
Here are two tables showing the number of hours per week devoted to each subject in each grade of the schools of the kingdom of Prussia :—

ONE CLASS SCHOOL (ONE TEACHER).

Subject.	Elem. Grade.	Middle Grade.	Upper Grade.
Religion .....	4	5	5
German .....	11	10	8
Mathematics .....	4	4	5
Drawing .....		1	2
Science .....		2	2
Singing .....	1	2	2
History .....		2	2
Geography .....		2	2
Gymnastics (boys) } Needlework (girls) }	1	2	2
Total .....	21	30	30

SCHOOLS OF MORE THAN ONE CLASS.

Subject.	Elem. Grade.	Middle Grade.	Upper Grade.
Religion .....	4	4	4
German .....	11	8	8
Arithmetic .....	4	4	4
Geometry .....			2
Drawing .....		2	2
Science .....		2	4
History .....		2	2
Geography .....		2	2
Singing .....	1	2	2
Gymnastics } Needlework }	2	2	2
Total .....	22	28	32



Incidentally, let me note here how similar in many respects the difficulties of German and English education are. The Germans have a very serious religious difficulty, which however is found mainly outside—not inside—the school. Then you have classes too large for teachers; it is no uncommon thing to find classes of 70 or 80 in charge of one teacher. In one case I came across a village school of over 90 children of all ages, from 6 to 14, in charge of one master, with not even a monitor or Art. 68 to help. In other parts of Germany you will find the half-time system almost as flourishing as even in Lancashire, and teachers will tell you how the farmers will do everything to keep the children at home. Children are worked as often, and I believe as hard, out of school hours in Germany as they are in England, and relapse into the ignorance of pre-school days in the country in Germany as quickly or even more quickly than they do with us. There is a dark side to the bright page of German education just as there is to that of English education. The school is no more popular in some parts of rural Germany than it is in some parts of rural England, and it is the part of the philosopher to recognise and to account for this strange fact.\* My own impression is that until a profound revolution of curriculum takes place this lack of sympathy will exist. The German rural school has several advantages over its English rival; first its teacher has no great inducement to leave for the town school; being a civil servant, his salary is taken

\* In South Germany it is decreed that whenever the Thermometer reaches 25 deg. C. (*i.e.*, 81½ Fahrenheit) before 10.30 a.m. there shall be no afternoon school. This is really a concession to the farmer, who may thus legally employ his children at the time of year when their services are most needed.

altogether, nearly the same whether he teach in town or country; further, he has absolute security of tenure.

I will now briefly review the methods in the German school. In teaching the mother tongue very great care is taken in speaking to eliminate local peculiarities of dialect. The German teacher will make the child repeat a word over and over again until the clear natural enunciation has been obtained.

As every teacher throughout Germany has, as a rule, one class-room entirely devoted to his own use it is unnecessary for him to shout. The German teacher always speaks in a natural low conversational tone, and he does not talk much. He is content to suppress himself, but he insists upon his pupils speaking much and loudly. The answers are always in complete sentence form; indeed this has been carried to extremes, and has led to a good deal of formalism in the instruction.

I have seen this same careful cultivation of clear enunciation in many English schools, but on the whole it is, I think, more general in Germany than in England. The teaching of composition is much the same in both English and German schools, and too often is, I fear, merely an exercise in memory rather than a form of expression on the part of the child itself. However, there are many brilliant exceptions, and I have essays here by boys in a London Board School which, in some respects, are almost equal to the best essays written in German schools. The German child has memorised a great deal of the best of German literature which reacts powerfully on his own composition. The German school reader is a book of about 600 pages, graduated to suit children from the ages of 7 to 14, and contains the very finest pieces in German literature.

This book is the centre of instruction in the primary school. The composition grows out of it, the history is built upon it, and the geography and nature study are amplified and consolidated therein. In reading there is not so much attention paid to what I have called rhetorical embellishments as in English schools. Indeed, it is often rather sing-song in character, but it is always beautifully clear, the enunciation is cultivated with extreme care, and the result is on the whole very satisfactory. One does not see much parsing, but analysis is largely used, and the sentences taken for these exercises are generally those of the reader, particularly those of a religious or patriotic character. The same lack of animation but careful cultivation of vocables is to be observed in the lessons in recitation. In the big town schools, however, magnificent renderings of famous German poems were heard; the German boy is not so self-conscious as the English boy, and will throw himself without reserve into the pathos of a fine poem. In the German singing, too, there is sometimes a lack of vivacity and firmness, and I do not think the study of vocal music is carried on to anything like the same extent in the German as in the English school.

The music of the best Welsh or Yorkshire school is, I believe, superior to that of the German school. The Welsh children's voices are naturally finer, and those of Yorkshire better trained, than the voices of German children. I have been delighted and surprised at the high pitch to which the training in vocal music is carried in the North of England schools. I have heard some of the choruses from "Judas Maccabæus" and also Bishop's "Tramp, Tramp," sung with magnificent effect by 500 children in a Yorkshire school recently, whilst in another school the vocal exercises were, I think superior

to anything I had previously heard. Some of these schools also possessed admirable string bands.

In the teaching of geography and history considerable variety is found in German schools. In all schools the geography begins with a study of the school district. Maps are rolled up when they are not in use.

In the large town schools cause and effect is continually developed, and the whole of the geography is ultimately based upon experience. German school maps and atlases are much superior to ours; they devote more attention to physical than political geography, and the German cartographer does not attempt to include too much in his map. {On the other hand, the apparatus in the best English schools is more varied and instructive; beautiful pictures of famous places and buildings, contour models, and trays for sand modelling are as conspicuous by their presence in the English as they are by their absence in the German primary school. But it must be pointed out that the little books of definitions, etc., occasionally found in some English schools are never seen in German schools.

History in the German schools, is based mainly upon the material in the reader, and is often of a distinctly stereotyped character. In the English schools, history has hitherto been conspicuous by its absence.

The writing in German schools, both Roman and German characters, is invariably well done. The German teacher will tell his visitor: "We expect our pupils to write well always, not sometimes." In the lowest class drawing is often taken instead of writing.

In arithmetic the work is practically all oral and on the blackboard, very rarely indeed on books or slates. The decimal system helps them considerably. The teacher gives out a problem orally, and calls a boy up to

state it on the blackboard. This done, another boy is called up to work it. He states the reason for each step as he proceeds, the class follows and criticises; the teacher is simply the referee, called in to settle disputed points or to assist out of difficulties. These German teachers avoid that great fault of telling too much; they are content to suppress themselves. Arithmetic is begun by the six-year-old children in working problems of this kind:—

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{xxx} \\ \text{xxx} \end{array} \right\} - x = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{xx} \\ \text{xx} \end{array} \right\} x$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{ooo} \\ \text{ooo} \end{array} \right\} - o = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{oo} \\ \text{oo} \end{array} \right\} o$$

Speaking of German schools, Matthew Arnold said: "In the teaching of arithmetic, geometry and natural science, I was particularly struck with the patience, the clinging to oral question and answer, the avoidance of over-hurry, the being content to advance slowly, the securing of the ground." He finds himself he tells us, jotting down in his notebook continually: "These children are human."

The drawing in German primary schools is generally done on chequered paper, and can hardly be looked upon as a means of expression in the study of form. The art study in the primary school should be a training in the expression of form, and it is a mistake to suppose that the only possible means of expression open to a child is through pencil and paper. In our best English primary schools form expression is taught not only by drawing but also by clay-modelling, brush-work, painting from nature, free arm work, cardboard work, and many another admirable means.

The drawing in German primary schools is very different from the splendid training in design and ornament taught in some of our English primary schools. Such work in design *is* taught in the Fatherland, but in special schools, and not in the primary schools.

In dealing with natural science and modern language teaching we are leaving the elementary school proper and entering the domain of the higher primary schools of England and Germany. The Girls' Mittelschulen of Germany are essentially primary schools, with two upper classes, and include in their curricula either English or French and a science subject. The age of the girls in the top classes of the Mittelschulen appears to be from 16 to 17 years. No practical science is taught, nor any of the domestic arts. Calisthenics and gymnastics (including in the girls' schools fencing and jumping) are splendidly taught, and the calisthenics of these girls' schools is equalled only by that taught in the very best primary schools of England. The marching in both types of school, English and German, is magnificent, and the deportment of the girls admirable.

In the teaching of elementary science, by our devotion to practical laboratory work and by the tendency of the whole of our instruction to throw the pupil upon his own resources, I believe we are ahead of Germany. The teaching in the German lecture theatre is, I think, superior to that in the English, the demonstration table is better and more elaborately fitted, and the teacher is perhaps more highly trained, but our faith is pinned to the practical work in the laboratory. We deliberately subordinate the lecture theatre to the laboratory, whereas in Germany the direct converse is true, and by that faith shall we, I think, be justified.

In modern language teaching there is no doubt what-

ever in my mind as to the superiority of the German school, though I heard a lesson in French in an English primary school equal to any lesson heard in a German higher primary school. The whole of the lesson was given in French, and centred upon a picture, whilst the grammar was carefully subordinated and yet intercalated into the lesson. I heard an equally fine lesson a few days ago here at home, and I am glad to think that in this, as in many other features, our best schools are "leading the way." Such lessons are, I believe, more rare in English higher primary schools than they are in the German higher primary school.

What these lessons lacked was that phonetic basis upon which all the best modern language teaching in German secondary schools is built.

However, I believe that even in this subject, admittedly the strong point in German training, we are at present witnessing a revolution of method in the English school, and that we shall in a few years compare not altogether unfavourably with Germany.

In school games and athletics our rivals are far behind us, and the cause is mainly due to a lack of proper appreciation by the people of these valuable branches of the school curriculum. Some of the more thoughtful Germans are enthusiastic admirers of the English school games, and personally I think that our national success, and after all *that is a fact*, despite all detractors, is largely due to those habits of restraint, co-operation, and resource which no academic training can ever engender so well as the school play-ground.

The school games in Germany, though under the care of paid officials, cannot indeed be compared with the games of the English school.

In a London Board School I saw five silver cups won



by the scholars in different events, swimming, running, football and cricket, and I was much interested and delighted at the skill shown by the boys in a football match played on the asphalted playground between one class and another. The teacher had exercised his ingenuity in devising a specially-constructed cricket ball and football which would not "carry" too far. A wreath of oakleaves in a German school gymnasium was the prize won by the school team of five in a race of 3,000 metres—run on the relay plan. The gymnastic exercises in these two schools are of an equally fine character, and it would be difficult for the non-expert to decide which is the better, though he would probably admit that the gymnasium of the German schools is much the more elaborately fitted of the two.

Let me now say something as to discipline. In only about two English schools have I seen discipline similar to that of the German school, and those were both schools attended entirely by children of Polish Jews. A German Catholic priest once tackled me on this point, for I may say at once that the average German has no doubt whatever as to the superiority of the German school, and particularly of its discipline, over that of the English. I told him: "Your ideals are different from ours; we would conserve the child's individuality, even at the risk of a loss of discipline."

But as discipline pure and simple, that of the German school is excellent. The German child sucks in order and discipline with his mother's milk. It has become a national habit. Even the geese have acquired it. I remember one day seeing about 400 geese marching along the highway four or five abreast, with a steadiness that would not have disgraced the King's Guards; and the sheep in Germany follow, and are not driven, by the

shepherd. It is more difficult for a German child to be unruly than for an English one not to be.

Finally, I would say something of the teacher himself. The German teacher is very highly trained, and his course of training extends practically over six years. From 14 to 17 years of age he is a pupil of the normal preparatory school, and for the next three years he is a student at the normal college. The curriculum is not wide but deep, and his knowledge of the history and philosophy of education is very thorough and sound. All German teachers are philosophers, and many of them are to-day enthusiastic Herbartians. Consequently, the doctrines of apperception and interest, together with the formal steps, are often to be observed. A German teacher never begins a lesson without a preparation covering a recapitulation of previous steps, and completing it by correlating the material presented with the material of the other portions of the curriculum.

I believe that in no country in the world is the teaching on so sound and philosophical a basis, and I will add that nowhere else are the teachers so highly appreciated by the community and by themselves as in Germany. They are proud of their profession, and their country is proud of them; and well may it be. I am glad to think that public opinion in England is rapidly reaching this standpoint, for until the office of teacher is looked upon as one of the most onerous and honourable offices in the community we shall suffer in some respects from a comparison with such a land as Germany.

But some German teaching is not above criticism. It has, so to speak, been over-developed. Teaching has become a fine art, and like all fine arts, there is evidence of formalism in it. The teaching is sometimes too stereotyped in character, and that originality and that resource-

fulness that are characteristic of the finest teaching are often lacking in the German teaching of to-day.\* Still, with all this, the more I study and think about the German teacher the more I admire the care with which he builds up the new knowledge firmly upon the old, the honesty with which he performs his task, never allowing a sense of injustice or injury to interfere with the due discharge of his duties, the enthusiasm with which he is imbued, the high conception he has formed of the obligations of his profession, the candour with which he gives his opinion, and the self-respect that animates him in all his actions; these are traits which unite him in my mind to all that is best in our English teacher. I cannot dissociate the best English from the German teacher; all those qualities which make up the fine teacher are equally effective on the East as the West side of the North Sea, and I am glad to think almost equally abundant.

Under some of the big North of England Boards I find the mixed schools of 1,200 children under a master supplanting the separate boys' and girls' departments. In other cases they have a junior mixed school, under a master or mistress, for Standards I. and II. only (children of six to eight years of age). The great advantage of this latter plan, it seems to me, is that in such a school the principles of the Kindergarten may be introduced and the child's self-activity cultivated more fully than is at present done in the school for older scholars. Thus the lamentable break which now occurs between the infants' school and the school for older scholars would be minimised, and perhaps ultimately obviated. I do

\* Another serious defect in much German teaching is that so little is done to encourage resourcefulness on the part of the pupil. The child leaves school without having been trained to acquire knowledge of himself, so he is helpless without his teacher.

strongly hold that something should be done in the lower standards to retain and extend those admirable occupations now taught in our infants schools.

I have hitherto said nothing of the relationship between the German primary, secondary, and academic systems of education. There can be no doubt whatever, I think, that in Wales the educational ladder is much more complete than in Germany. The German teacher would, I think, be the first to admit it, and then he would go on to explain that he placed but little value on such a ladder. Germany is still a land where the caste feeling is very acute, and I believe it is very rare indeed to find examples such as are now every-day occurrences with us of primary scholars who have reached the highest rungs of the ladder and the richest prizes of life.

I am not going to give you the German's objections to the educational ladder, but I will only remind you that the ladder is for the few, the school for the many.

Let me sum up. You will see from this hasty comparison how difficult it would be to answer such a question as "Which is the better, English or German education?"

I am, at any rate, convinced that I cannot answer it, though I was equally certain before I carefully studied the German system that I could answer it.

The real superiority of the German system is neither in the teaching nor the schools, but it is in that public spirit upon which all rational systems of education must rest.

Until our people have been trained to see the criminality of robbing the child of his moral right to a good education, by keeping him from school or sending him to the factory too early, or working him out of school hours, we shall suffer.

How utterly wasteful, how extravagant this system of absenteeism and child labour is, it is unnecessary for me to point out. To secure the penny to-day the English parent denies himself the pound to-morrow.

Meanwhile, we must endeavour to possess our souls in patience, knowing as we do that time is on our side.

Let us trust that it will not need national disaster, as in the case of Germany and France, to make us realise in full the necessity of a sound liberal training for our citizens.

## TWO COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

THE future of the community is more intimately bound up with the welfare of the rural school than perhaps most of us imagine. Without derogating from, or in any way attempting to minimize the fine work done by, our larger and more progressive School Boards, it must be confessed that all this will prove largely futile if behind it there is not a sound system of rural education. Modern city life would soon cease were it not constantly renewed by fresh blood from the soil—from the country. These city schools must, to be successful, be renewed every third generation by fresh conscripts of the soil.

When the fact is recognized that the country is the recruiting ground of the race, the source from which the physical vitality of the people is ultimately developed, the full significance of this rural school problem will be appreciated. This problem is by no means peculiar to England; it is, if anything, more acute in the United States, and causes much anxious thought in Germany.

Too rarely is it recognized, or indeed admitted, that the problem of the rural school is peculiar to itself, and that the aim of this school is essentially different from that of the urban school. Yet there can be no doubt that the environment and the future vocation of its pupils

should largely condition the curriculum of a school. When one considers that in all essential respects the curriculum of the rural school both in England and Germany has hitherto differed but little from that of the urban school, one sees that the admitted unpopularity of those rural schools is not altogether inexplicable. My purpose here is to sketch, as lightly as I can, two pictures, one, that of a good German rural school, the other a good English rural school.

Some eight miles out of the fine town of Düsseldorf, and branching off the main road to Cologne, one finds oneself in a country of immense grain fields. Far as the eye can see stretches the golden corn rapidly ripening to the sickle. Scarce a farmhouse or labourer's cottage do we pass on our way to the village. The Rhineland farmer and peasant live in the villages, not in isolated farms, as is generally the case in England. So often has this rich and beautiful province been devastated by passing armies that acquired instinct, so to speak, compels the Rhinelanders to live together for mutual comfort and protection.

However, it has simplified one of the problems of the rural school to a very large extent. Only a very small proportion of the pupils walk two miles or more to school. We push along the beautifully kept road, which is superior even to French roads, for both German and French main roads are primarily military routes. The trees on each side afford some shelter from the fierce rays of the sun. Occasionally we pass a crucifix or shrine, recalling to us memories of Brittany, Normandy, and the "ould cuntry." The Rhineland is still to a very large extent Catholic, as his forebears were. It was this religious sympathy that caused him in old days to look to France for support against his

detested foe, the Prussian. Time brings its revenges, however. To-day the Rhinelander almost invariably proudly describes himself as a Prussian. It is "our good Prussian King," not "our good German Emperor," of whom we hear so much in the schools.

Whilst we soliloquize, our good horses have carried us to the village, which consists of some thirty to forty cottages arranged on each side of the main road. The houses are built of small red bricks, and are very plain structures indeed. They are very like Dutch cottages, and remind us of the little houses in our "box of toys" of childhood's days. A couple of inns and the village church complete the picture. The churches hereabouts vary but little, but all seem to be copies of the old Apostolic Church at Cologne.

It is remarkable what a similarity to type there is in the different provinces of the Fatherland. Each church is very much like every other church, each country school is very similar to every other country school, and each country teacher very much like every other country teacher in the province. Individuality has either exhausted itself or has been effectually curbed.

Next to the church, the most pretentious building in the village is the school. This school which we have come to see is practically a new building. We knock at the door, and, after some hesitation by the teacher, we are invited to enter. However, after perusing our credentials and admiring the signatures on the documents, his manner becomes more conciliatory and his reserve gradually disappears. Neither strangers nor even parents are allowed to visit these public schools without permission from the proper authority; indeed, a parent who would attempt to do such a thing would be fined.



It is evidently a matter of considerable difficulty for our friend to get over his intense astonishment at finding visitors from England without black coat or hat, "and on bicycles too! Well, these English are an odd people!" He confesses afterwards that it has been a somewhat painful shock to him. However, his astonishment does not seriously disturb his equanimity. He speaks with a certain quiet dignity of manner, answers our questions without hesitation or *arrière pensée*, gives his views with firmness and conviction, but without that arrogance so liable to be developed in such surroundings as his.

We notice how few boys there are in proportion to the girls, and ask him if this difference in birth-rate can be accounted for. "Ach!" laughs he, "das ist eine alte Geschichte."

There are twenty children here to-day, of all ages from six to fourteen. Quiet, fair-haired children they are, with that serious look that most German children have. The serious nature of life's duties is a lesson quickly learnt and never forgotten. There are no bonny red cheeks and wilful eyes that one sees in merry England, nor that irrepressible restiveness so characteristic of our children. The master asks us what we would like to see and hear, and in reply we say that we wish to see him and his children go on just as usual. He readily falls in with our wishes, and so do the children. They are evidently glad to see us. The official is not made such a bogey of here as at home. We were lunching in the village inn a few days ago, and chatting with us were the children of the landlord. They knew we were visitors from England who had been to see the Catholic school near at hand. These children were evidently Protestant, for one of

them, after much hesitation, asked us, "And you will come to see our school, too—will you not?" It was evidently a bitter disappointment to her and her sisters when we told them we could not.

To return: whilst the master is giving an oral lesson to his top grade, let us glance around the school. The doors by which we enter are those immense and ponderous double doors seen only on the Continent. Through these we enter a spacious entrance hall, from which a wide staircase runs up to the master's house, which forms the second storey of the building. Around the hall are hat-pegs and umbrella-stands. All is in perfect order and beautifully clean. From the hall we enter the only class-room, where we find the master and pupils busy at work. On ledges here and there flowers are growing. The walls are coloured light green. No pictures, but portraits of the three Emperors, adorn the walls. The room strikes one as being bare. A plan of the school district is framed in a glass case and suspended on the wall. The maps, which we at home generally use to adorn the walls of the room, are kept rolled up when not in use, as the teacher thinks they are too distracting. Besides maps, the master showed us a portfolio full of coloured pictures specially designed for object and language lessons. These cost one shilling each.

The room is well lighted from one side, *i.e.*, to the left of the pupils. Much more attention is paid to hygienic matters in school buildings in Germany now than used to be. All the windows are casement windows, and to-day are wide open, so that the atmosphere of the room is very pleasant and agreeable. But the windows, we observe, are double, so as to keep out the bitter cold of winter. "What of the ventilation,

then?" we ask, and the master's shrug is very expressive. There are no extractors or Tobin's tubes such as we are accustomed to find at home; so that we fear the room must, at any rate, become "stuffy" when the windows are hermetically sealed as in winter-time. On one side of the room is fixed a fine stove. The thermometer is carefully watched in these schools so that the temperature, at any rate, may be kept fairly equable. There are three sizes of desks, to suit children of different ages. These are heavy and solid, but convenient and fitted with backs. The children can sit in them without unduly straining their backs or their eyes. The ink-wells are covered to keep out the dust. It is interesting to note that these ink-wells are always carefully covered up when not in use; in England the cover, even when it is provided, is rarely used.

Everything in this German school is clean and in good order. The master tells us that the school is washed weekly. The school has no lavatory accommodation excepting the pump in the playground, and, as far as we can see, the necessity for it is not felt. The children are always sent to school by the parents quite clean, and the mild games of these children do not, like those of our children, necessitate frequent hand-washing. The State will apparently do nothing that may tend to weaken the sense of parental obligation. There is a basket in the room where all waste paper is deposited.

The greater portion of the work is done on slates, and then occasionally, after an exercise has been corrected by the teacher, it is copied into the child's exercise book. The writing on slates is invariably very good. Correct position of body is attended to. We saw many of these books containing exercises in composition, the teaching of which is largely based on

the contents of the school reader. There were few exercises showing initiative or originality. Some exercises in arithmetic were also noticed. All the work in these books is extremely neat and well set out; but such books are no basis of comparison with the exercise books of English children, which latter contain generally the original exercises worked by the pupil. The master keeps a log book, but, instead of being a record of the school's doings, it is intended to be mainly a record of the doings of the district. The apparatus consists of two rather small blackboards, a globe, maps of the district and province, of Palestine, and of Germany, a ball frame, some alphabetical charts, a set of pictures for object and language lessons, a few simple models for teaching geometry, a set of historical charts, a song book, and a violin. The school also possesses a master's desk, and a small reference library for the master's use.

Each pupil has in his heavy knapsack, which he daily carries to and fro, a reader of about five hundred pages, an exercise book, a text-book of arithmetic and geometry, a song book, a note book, and a slate and pencil. These, which cost altogether between four and five shillings, each pupil provides for himself. If the parents are too poor, then the school district must provide these, as well as clothes and food, for the children needing them.\*

It is a pretty sight to see these children trudging to school with their wooden *sabots*, and the girls with bare heads and pig-tails hanging down their backs.

No text-book is used in geography and history

\* Children over twelve may, on account of poverty, be excused further attendance at school, but must in such cases attend the Sunday continuation school.

teaching, but the older children often have atlases. We saw plans of the school and playground drawn on slates. German children begin geography at nine, and their knowledge of other lands than Germany is not extensive even when they leave school.

The teacher is skilful and quiet. He has divided his little school into three sections, and the time-table is so drawn out that an oral lesson to one is simultaneous with silent lessons to the other sections. This afternoon, soon after our entry, the master begins with his lowest class. He asks them a few questions in number, and then proceeds to write on the blackboard a series of simple problems, and the little people immediately take out their slates and begin to busy themselves with these. He takes the top class in a geography lesson, to which the middle class sit and listen without taking any active part therein. It is wonderful how quiet and orderly these children can be without apparently any effort on their or their teacher's part. German children are exceedingly easy to manage, and take much less out of their teacher than do our children. There is a pleasant atmosphere of home in this little school. The geography lesson is entirely oral. The teacher speaks very quietly and clearly. However, the children are made to speak very loudly. This lesson is recapitulatory. The answers of the children are distinctly formal and set. An answer not given in a certain form is not accepted. Evidently memory is cultivated, and the work is so often repeated that the children undoubtedly acquire a considerable number of facts; but whether the ideas are the teacher's or whose it is difficult to say. They are certainly not the children's. However, the method is thorough. The instruction is largely based on map-reading, but then this is done by

the teacher, not the pupil. Of the history lesson which followed much the same remarks may be made. The matter, except that, like most national history, it was somewhat biassed, was sound, interesting, and instructive, but the same formal answers were again required, and one could see that the child was repeating not his own ideas so much as those of the teacher or the "School Reader." The self-activity and experience of the child were not sufficiently cultivated and appealed to. The child's self-resource and reliance were being effectually scotched, rather than cultivated, by this system of training. He was not being trained to stand alone.

Then we heard a part song which was very prettily rendered, the teacher accompanying on his violin. The voices were sweet and well balanced. After that we had a recitation by the older scholars, which was rather sing-song in character, but the words were beautifully clear, and a certain amount of subdued feeling was evident. Country children at home generally recite in this sing-song way.

After that a woman from the village came in to take the girls in needlework. We saw some of the needlework done by the girls, and it seemed to us inferior to what our girls at home do. It was mainly knitting and "samplers." There was less done, and the quality of what was done was not high. Two hours a week are spent at needlework, and one at drawing of a simple nature. Whilst the girls are at needlework the boys are taken in gymnastics by the master in the playground. These exercises consisted of marching, running, jumping, and drilling. Then there were exercises on the horizontal and parallel bars, and the whole concluded by a number of games which were very similar

to those played by our children at home. The playground is ample, and covered partly with grass and partly with gravel, and edged by trees, which afford a very pleasant and indeed necessary shade to-day.

The master told us his children were extremely regular, and absences, except for illness, were unknown. These children, too, are always punctual. The children come to school regularly, not so much, perhaps, because either children or parents love school much better than in England, but because the law is stringent and rigidly enforced, and because they are a law-abiding people. Further, the old-world idea of the State as the beneficent parent is still potent in Germany.

The German rural teachers have grievances, like other teachers, and some of them have eloquent but embittered tongues. The full torrent of scorn is sometimes poured upon the local pastor or priest, who is a kind of school correspondent and inspector combined. We were told, sometimes, how objectionable he can make himself at the annual promotion and classification of pupils, particularly if the teacher is not as loyal and zealous a son of Mother Church as his pastor thinks he should be. "He will believe all the old wives of the village rather than me," one teacher asserted; and another, "Oh, yes, he helps on my assistant women teachers, because, you know, women go to church oftener than we men do." At another school we found that the local pastor had called in and dismissed a class without consulting the head master, much to the chagrin of the latter. The children often come to school at 8 a.m., weary after the early church service held at 7 a.m., so we were told.

We inquired of our friend if he knew when he might expect the Government inspector. "No," he chuckled;

“if I did, I should take the horse out and put him through his paces.” We were telling him of the schools we had seen and hoped to see. Said he, “It is hardly necessary: when you have seen one rural school, you have seen all”—a remark which I believe is largely true.

After school was over, he insisted upon our coming upstairs to his house. He called his wife in, but did not introduce us, nor vouchsafe to her any information as to who we were. He simply asked for wine and cigars. The house was beautifully kept and well furnished, with a piano, &c. All these German teachers, be it remembered, are civil servants of assured status and pension.\* A garden for the master’s use must always be provided by the local managers.

The German housewife is very like our mothers were twenty-five years ago, even to their weakness for anti-macassars; an unobtrusive sense of fealty and duty and a pride in her house-wifery are her characteristics. We spent a most pleasant hour with our friend. He was a well read man, and was learning English. His ideal, almost his one ambition in life, was—well, what think you? Simply to save enough money to be able some day to go to London and enter the British Museum. But it is hard work, and requires a long time to save that much out of a German schoolmaster’s salary. However, he was hopeful. He had all the German’s fine sense of patriotism and of the high calling of his

\* Although the German teacher is a State servant, yet he is generally engaged by the local managers, who also pay the greater part of his salary. The State fixes a minimum salary and pension, as well as the conditions of engagement. The sources of a German rural teacher’s salary are often many and various. Dr. Russell mentions a case where the teacher obtains his salary from *eighteen* different sources!



country. He was under the impression that all our primary schools were under School Boards and undenominational, and that *his* troubles were peculiar. He expatiated, too, on what he called our splendid system of continuation schools, by which he evidently meant not so much our evening schools as the work of the Polytechnic, University Extension, and County Council. He was very bitter about the apparent futility of rural education. He said that, after all the trouble and care which he had spent upon them, his brightest as well as his dullest children soon after they leave school relapse into an ignorance as profound almost as that from which school rescued them. They never read a good book, and rarely even a newspaper. Of course the English rural teacher will tell you much the same thing; though in Wales the inauguration of rural intermediate schools has considerably modified this state of things. How far this state of things is due to the curriculum and methods of teaching adopted cannot now be discussed. We inquired of him as to the home lessons set to the children. He told us all were given tasks to do at home which need not take more than half an hour as a rule. Still, he admitted that the hours are too long for the children. Even on half-holidays the children have to help on the farm; so that these school holidays are no holiday for the country children.

Let us now look at the other picture—a good English country school. The school was built about twenty-five years ago, and its architecture, though pretty, and combining effectively with that of the neighbouring church, is not that best suited for the purposes of a school. Too often, indeed, our rural schools have too many parts to play in life. However, since its erection

the school has been considerably altered. A small class-room has been added for the use of children under seven years of age. A cloak-room and lavatory, too, have been added, and the offices brought up to date. The ventilation, instead of being dependent upon windows and chimneys, is now effected by a couple of Tobin's tubes and Boyle's extractors. The lavatory and offices are supplied with water from a covered tank which collects all the rain water from the roof of the school. This supply is generally sufficient for the needs of the school. Both rooms are clean and well kept. This work, as in Germany, is generally done by the master's wife. Pictures brighten up the walls. Here and there are suspended maps. These maps are more numerous than in the German schools, but I doubt if they are as good. Contour models, too, are hung on the wall, together with a plan of the school. In the infant room the walls are gay with the mats, drawings, and plaitings of the little ones. The school possesses a harmonium, and the children sing to note some very pretty school songs for us. There is little to choose between the singing of these two schools, though note singing is not taught in the usual German rural school. There is no great difference of proficiency, either, in the three R's. The drawing and needlework of the English school are distinctly superior; but the discipline, as discipline, of the German school is finer. The moral atmosphere of both schools seems equally pleasant. Certain little virtues, such as punctuality, cleanliness, tidiness, and courtesy, seem more universal in the German than in the English rural school. The mother tongue, too, receives much more attention in the German than in the English rural school.

Those contour models are due to the master's

ingenuity and skill. With paper pulp he and his pupils have made models of South Wales, the British Isles, and of Europe. The desks are of two sizes for the older scholars, and one for the infants. They are new, and have movable seats, so that the children may stand in the gangway for physical exercise. There are about forty-five children, of whom about fifteen to eighteen are in the infants' room. These are in charge of the master's wife, an old assistant teacher, with many years' good work behind her. The children are well fed, bright, and intelligent, very respectful, but, like all English children, somewhat restive of control. The children attend very punctually and regularly, particularly so for an English rural school. But what is meant by a good attendance? In the German school the average attendance for the year would probably be well over 95 per cent.: but then very few of the children come from outside the village. But here, where the attendance for a year is nearly 90 per cent., many of the children have come over two miles to school, and that too through English lanes, not along German roads. This high regularity is mentioned just as the contour models were noticed, not as typical of the English rural school, but as typical of the resourcefulness and self-help of the really good English teacher. The curriculum of this school is closely similar to that of the German school, and differs in no essential respect from that of a town school. However, attempts are being made in a tentative sort of way to alter this. The master shows us a collection of local plants, animals, and rocks that he is encouraging the children to get together. Out in the playground, too, he shows us a piece of ground upon which he intends taking up cottage gardening with his boys. Then in the summer, school walks for nature

talks have been inaugurated. (These have long been utilized in the German school.)

In the teaching, text-books are used more, silent reading and home reading in the upper classes are developed, the arithmetical problems are generally solved by the boy on his exercise book or slate, the teacher only occasionally helping; in geography the pupils have text-books, and draw maps of their own; in fine, the pupil is thrown more on his own resources, and his work generally is more written than oral. The English children do not speak out so loudly, so clearly, or so grammatically as German children are taught to do; on the other hand, the English child is more at home with pen and exercise book. The playground of the English school is divided off for the sexes—not common, as in Germany. The boys' playground is occupied at present by a cricket pitch. There is a great contrast between the behaviour of the children of these two schools in the playground. These English boys are rough, boisterous, and never quiet; those German lads, if left to themselves, slouch about with hands in pockets, or casually watching one of their companions' antics on the horizontal bar.

The English teacher is almost as reserved as the German teacher. However, he will probably tell you he is neither a farmer's nor a teacher's son, as is so often the case in Germany. Occasionally he will speak bitterly of his position—no intellectual society, no assured social status, and, as yet, no real security of tenure. He, too, like his German colleague, sometimes complains of the pinch of the *odium theologicum*. Occasionally, however, he is merely a disappointed man out of touch with his surroundings. In other cases you will find a man thoroughly in touch with all the life around him, a

leader in all social movements, respected and beloved by all. By considerable self-sacrifice he is giving his children an education, sometimes secondary or even academic, far superior to that which he had to be content with. But even in these cases the respect is paid to the man, not to him as teacher. Germany is far ahead of us in the respect she gives her teachers, and until we reach the same level we shall suffer by a comparison.

The difficulties of these two schools are much the same, and need no amplifying here. Country children are, I believe, worked just as hard out of school in Germany as in England,\* and the problem of understaffing is more acute in Germany, owing to the reluctance of the authorities to employ unqualified or partially qualified persons as assistant teachers.

\* This statement is limited to country children. In towns the law interferes, for it is unlawful for children of school age to ply goods for sale or to beg in the streets, or to take part in dramatic performances.

## THE FUNDAMENTALS OF TRAINING.

LIFE is a series of actions and reactions between man and his environment. Education is the process of training the child to responsiveness, to the power of reacting on his physical and moral environment. A meagre training means failure to respond and consequently means pain and non-success in life. Moral and physical pain is only another term for lack of harmony, a discordance between man and his world. The perfect life is that in which there is a sweet unison between these two, man and his environment. This power of responsiveness is entirely a matter of training. Lack of this power is due to imperfect training.

Ignorance is the crime of which nature is least tolerant. She ruthlessly destroys the ignorant and unskilled.

Moreover the more automatic these reactions become the happier is life. The highly skilled organism packs away as into an automatic machine most of the routines and trivialities of life, reserving to itself a surplus of energy to deal with the reactions that are peculiar, occasional, and momentous. The tendency in the evolution of life seems to be gradually to pack even these latter into the automatic machine.

To train sensitive responsive organisms is the work of the teacher.

But this environment, this world in which the child and man live is made up of two elements—Nature and

Man. Life then indeed is nothing more than a series of equations between the ego and the world. To develop responsiveness to these two elements of the environment is the purpose of education. This responsiveness must be developed, so that the child may be in perfect harmony with his world, and his inherent power of judgment be turned to right judgment.

True education is that which develops the child's moral and physical attributes. Its only purpose is the building of character. Character is neither moulded by nor proportioned to the proficiency in any formal studies, say the three Rs, but is by the two culture elements of the curriculum viz :—Nature-Study and Man-Study (including in this latter, language, geography, and history)

The relative value of these two essential elements varies however at different periods of a child's life. The value of Nature Study predominates in the earlier years of school life, whilst the value of the humanities enhances with the growing years of the pupil. Up to about the age of nine the child's environment is mainly physical and it is largely a waste of energy to endeavour to cultivate before that year the moral side of child nature by means of humanistic studies.

In the German School practically no history nor geography is taught before this age, whereas a form of Nature Study forms a prominent part of the course for six year old children. It is these earlier years that the German Teacher utilises for overcoming the purely mechanical difficulties of the formal studies. There can be no doubt that these formal studies have become the tyrants of our school and the fetish of the teacher. They monopolise the time of our schools. We should make the training in these formal studies less extensive and more intensive. If these studies were left severely alone

until the child is, say, eight years of age then these mechanical difficulties could readily be overcome in probably two years, were sane methods used ; and the culture studies could then be continued by the pupil with these necessary weapons in his hands.

Nature Study then is the most essential element in the primary school curriculum. It is in truth the one indispensable. Around it should the other elements of the course group themselves. They are the incidentals, it alone in these early years is fundamental. And it is only as a fundamental that its efficacy is realised ; as an incidental it is manifestly useless.

Nature Study must not be taught in our primary schools because it will make nature attractive to children, nor because of its supposed " scientific " method nor even because of its power of cultivating the observing and reasoning faculties of children, but because the school is a training ground for the growth of character and such a training consists in placing the child *en rapport* with his environment.

Having discussed this fundamental element of the curriculum, we may now observe how far our schools of to-day are from fulfilling this function and realising our ideal. By a servile devotion to the formal studies, by the intensely literary character of the school training and by its consequent warping of the self-activity and individuality of the child, the modern school has often earned the contempt of men who, by instinct only, feel the futility of modern systems of education.

To those who would judge of this matter I would say: Visit any one of the Infant schools where Nature Study occupies its proper sphere in the curriculum, and then one of the many schools for older children where the predominance of the three Rs is unquestioned.



Despite the many difficulties of the former school with its large classes and inadequate equipment of its teachers, there is evident a sprightly vivacity, a whole-hearted enthusiasm, and a responsive sympathy between teacher and child which together produce a most pleasant effect on the visitor. To visit such a school is to many of us an education. And the secret of it all is largely due to the overthrow of the tyranny of the formal studies and enthroning in place thereof *nature and naturalness*.

We want more sunlight in our schools. We need more life there. Our schools to-day are the direct descendants of the mediæval monastic and conventual school, and clinging to them are many of the prejudices of those old world institutions. Nothing was more repugnant to those schools than life. The world was the object of obloquy and contumely. The ideal of such schools was asceticism. That it was necessary to kill the man so as to develop the angel was the belief of this mediæval scholasticism. However the world has outgrown this gloomy faith. Has the school altogether done so?

We, however, recognise that these after all are relics and at that not beautiful. We must clear our schools of these mediæval attitudes. Our schools we think should be full to the brim with life. Nature the despised of the cloister must be enthroned as Queen in our schools and in our children's hearts. They must learn to love her every mood. They are her children and she compels their love. But, love, to be true, postulates knowledge. So it becomes that an intimate close communion with nature is the one essential for full rich life. Further, let us beware of making nature repugnant to children by endeavouring to teach them nature knowledge by the same methods that we would adopt to teach young men

and women. Measuring and weighing are admirable means of training young people in the scientific method but they are not suited for introducing little children to their mother nature. These, like the pretty butterflies they are, love to fly hither and thither as the sweet scent or the sweeter honey attracts them; they will have no method in their wanderings and yours will only kill them.

They are not going to be scientific savants—only men and women. The “inventive” system, admirable as it is, has a place, but that place is not just here.

On the contrary their studies shall be as changeable as the seasons. With them we will study the flowers of the field, hedge, and garden, the animals that are our busy companions in life, and the stones and pebbles so mute yet so eloquent that lie at our feet. The babbling brook will tell them tales, and the weather worn rocks whisper secrets of long ago. Often too, we will wander together far from the crowded class room and noisy playground up the back of some giant crag or by the side of some placid stream. The seasons too will be a guide to us in selecting our topics. We will interest our pupils in the ever changing panorama of life; they shall see the cycle of change, and how yesterday differs from to-day and both from to-morrow.

Records will they keep of when the first lamb was seen, and where, and by whom. The appearance of the snowdrop, the cuckoo, and the ploughman too will interest them and be eagerly recorded.

In the spring we shall see the resurrection of all things, the bright gladness of life, the growing plumage of birds, and their fuller song. We shall call the children's attention to the buds of the trees such as the beech, willow, poplar, and chestnut. They will see how carefully protected and nourished by the parent these other

children are and the significance of this will not be lost on them.

The life history of the seed too will interest them. They shall plant in boxes in the school room or better still in beds in the school garden, seeds of various kinds and nourish them with their own tiny hands. Nothing interests children more than this. Amongst our bird friends the robin and blackbird will call for observation and the coming of the swallow and cuckoo will serve for many a sweet tale of these travellers. Here that admirable story "The Crane Express" in Miss Poulsson's book will be utilised. The changing forms of the clouds will excite the admiration and interest of our pupils. There will be no need in such lessons as these to maintain discipline—interest will do more than that.

In the summer months we shall have a prodigal's wealth at our disposal.

The sun, moon, and stars, the clear blue sky and the fleecy clouds, the roseate tints of dawn and the gorgeous colouring of sunset will all call forth the curiosity of the child. Curiosity is the most effective weapon in the teacher's armoury.

A chart of weather observations will be kept and the children taught to record the daily reading of the thermometer and barometer.

The summer moreover affords us many an opportunity of taking our children on country walks for nature talks. How delightful and how invaluable these class excursions are, only those of us who have tried them realise.

We will get our pupils to make collections of natural objects; a museum for each child collected by himself and in each classroom a small library where the children may find helpful and stimulating literature.

Leaves, grasses and ferns pressed and fixed in old

exercise books—or fixed on cardboard and suspended on the classroom wall will stimulate the interest and heighten the zeal of the collector.

In the autumn again the dying of nature, the beautiful tints of the woodlands, the departure of the birds, the early frosts and heavy dews will all appeal to the child and call forth his curiosity and reasoning powers.

“As soon as the leaves begin to fall encourage the children to bring beautiful ones to school, the teacher pressing some for the decoration of the classroom. Ask the children to name the trees from which the leaves come. Notice what tree puts on gay colours and have children note carefully the succession. The trees that wear yellow dresses may be grouped together, also those that wear dresses of red, purple, spotted red and yellow, etc.

“Do all trees that send off their leaves dress them beautifully before they go? What trees have leaves that shrivel up when the frosts come?”

Autumn bulbs, roots, and grain, will next attract attention. Amongst birds the crow, sparrow, and thrush, amongst animals the rabbit and squirrel, and many kinds of insects may be dealt with. Then comes winter with its evergreens, and the many hibernating animals would naturally serve as topics. Natural phenomena, too, such as hail, frost, and snow, with ice and its beautiful crystals appeal to children's interest.

Alongside this course and as a constituent part thereof will proceed a course in the training of expression, whether that be oral or by means of pen, pencil, brush or modelling knife. An indispensable part of the course in Nature Study is this training in expression, for power of expression is generally commensurate with mental possession. The faculty with which we can express our

thought, whether by means of writing, of drawing, of painting or of modelling is a true criterion of the measure of our clearness of thought. Our knowledge is incomplete until we can give it full expression. And I believe that is the only art that should be taught in our schools. Art as a means of form expression is an indispensable and fundamental element in the training of our scholars, but art as an introduction to the principles of design or ornament has no place there. We must teach the principles of nature not the principles of design in our schools. We are training men and women, not artists or architects.

One of the highest aims of our school is to develop resource and reliance in our pupils. This can only be done effectually by making the little world in which they move and have their being, real and intelligible to them. For generations we have been endeavouring to put another world on their backs. The only world they can truly realise and know is the child's world; and our duty is to let them develop as God intended them to in *this* world of theirs not *that* world of ours.

"We teach boys to be such men as we are. We do not teach them to aspire to be all they can. We do not give them a training as if we believed in their noble nature. We scarce educate their bodies, we do not train the eye and the hand. We exercise their understandings to the apprehension and comparison of some facts, to a skill in numbers, in words; we aim to make accountants, attorneys, engineers, but not to make able, earnest, great-hearted men. The great object of education should be commensurate with the object of life. It should be a moral one, to teach self trust, to inspire the useful man with an interest in himself, with a curiosity touching his own nature, to acquaint him with the resources of his

mind, and to teach him all there is in all his strength, and to inflame him with a piety toward the grand mind in which he lives." (Emerson.)

Such a course in the study of nature is the only means of placing the child *en rapport* with his environment. Thus his whole being vibrates in harmony with the world around him and becomes responsive to every modification of his natural environment. His character is completed by the training in the human studies, such as history. It is the purpose of this latter training to make intelligible the human society in which the child lives. He learns thereby the mutual obligations of the units of a social community. History explains the present to the child through the past. The child learns by a series of vivid and real object lessons the obligations and purposes of life.

He realises by such a training his place in the family and in the State and the duties which his position entails. Such a training develops the moral side; he learns by actual example, by concrete instances, what heroism and manhood means, and what cowardice and meanness of spirit engenders.

Such a complete course of study as we have discussed implies a solidarity of curriculum.

This unity in the primary school curriculum can only be secured by placing Nature Study as the foundation stone. The real centre indeed is the child himself.

School training may be said to be, in truth, an organising of experience. The teacher's duty in an ideal school is a passive not an active duty. To enable the child to organise and realise his experience, and not to endeavour to provide experience for the child, is the only duty of the true trainer. By thus assisting the child to make his little circle of experience real and intelligible the

teacher is training his pupil in power—in *usable power* which is the only power that is of value. It is the power of doing not of knowing that is of any value in this world ; with this developed power the child himself will widen his experience, and extend his world of real knowledge.

This the child will do in many ways ; by travel, by observation, and above all by reading. Life—real life—true growth, is but an increasing the radius of our circle of experience. Some folks' circles never grow larger, yet they boast of the *length* of their experience. In truth experience must be measured in square not long measure.

If it were clearly recognised that school is primarily a place for the organisation of experience, a considerable revolution in methods and ideals would be effected. The vital importance of clarifying children's ideas, the folly of postulating in children the experience of men, the necessity of dealing with real things and of cultivating in children not an extensive but a definite vocabulary commensurate with their experience, would at once be recognised. The wisdom too of hastening slowly would be granted. The utter futility of extending a child's vocabulary without widening his experience would be seen.

A Yorkshire teacher once showed me a list of very difficult words that he gave his boys to take home nightly — not so much for spelling purposes, but to extend their vocabulary and, of course, knowledge!

This primal necessity of making his little world of experience intelligible to the child should emphasize the importance of laying the foundation stones carefully.

It is upon the careful work done in these early days, upon the care with which these fundamentals of training are built, that the beauty and stability of the completed

building will be determined. Too much time and care cannot be taken over this essential matter. Until the child's first circle of experience has become real and definite it is futile to attempt to widen the circle. This duty implies the cultivation of the child's motor centres, of his power of willing, doing, and also the cultivation of his receiving powers—his senses. In how many schools, I wonder, is a course in sense training organised? Yet how indispensable for the child is such a training! The lack of training these powers of receiving and doing accounts for the blunted susceptibilities both moral and physical that are met with in life. I know not which is the more useless, the man of crude and blunted sensibility or the man whose power of doing has not been trained.

Organisms that fail to respond to their environment are bound to suffer and ultimately die.

Let us postulate this much, that the child's *first circle of experience* has been made intelligible to him. Day by day, as he grows his circle widens; his little world grows larger. This new area added on is made of the self-same stuff as the original circle—namely, experience. The new knowledge is interpreted in terms of the old, and only so far as it can thus be interpreted is it assimilated and the growth a real one. Knowledge that cannot thus be interpreted is not knowledge nor even "learned lumber." The experience of children is, as we have seen, of two kinds, that of the natural world and that of his fellows.

For his physical welfare and success in life a training in natural truths is indispensable; for moral growth a knowledge of his social *milieu* is essential. For the development of a fine character and skilled mind a training in both these fundamentals is the only condition of success.



Let it not be forgotten that our pupils are children of earth. They are not angels and were not intended to be *here*. Indeed they are very earthy little bodies full of the characteristics, or imperfections if you like, of humanity. Our duty is to train them to live their lives on earth which after all is the best preparation for a life elsewhere. A beautiful life, a character keenly responsive to all its surroundings, sensitive to all good influences, what better sacrifice can man offer? It is by becoming more human that we shall reach the stars. Man must become very man, and child very child before the possibilities of life will have been realised. The child's inalienable right to be a child will have to be admitted. It is near time that that old-world idea of the child being man, angel, or devil, should be abandoned.

## THE CURRICULUM OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL.

“What you have inherited from your fathers you must earn again in order to possess it.”

AN Australian writer asserts that the English teacher is, as a rule, more concerned with the practical details of his work, and the American teacher with the philosophy of teaching.

A teacher of many years' experience told me the other day that he can recollect in the days before “payment by results” many teachers' meetings entirely taken up with purely pedagogic questions; and I am inclined to think that the practice of examination killed the philosophy of teaching. Method was of no importance, results alone counted. However, I believe that, now that that dark cloud has gone, brighter days are in store for us. Teachers' meetings are a highly organised branch of the national system of education in France, Germany, and America. Attendance is compulsory, all expenses are paid, and all facilities are given by the State. I trust that we too ere long will see the value of such conferences.

The revolution of the last ten years has now culminated in the 1900 Code which has as its keynote freedom of curriculum.

## PRIMARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

The new Code deliberately hands over the framing of curricula to the local managers and teachers.\* This is a great privilege and responsibility, and it behoves us, therefore, to devote our best energies to the task. Properly considered, this drawing up of a curriculum is the momentous matter in education. It involves an investigation into our articles of educational faith.

What are our ideals? What, in our opinion, can education do for the children of the State? What is the function of the primary school?

## WHAT IS MEANT BY EDUCATION.

Let us examine this matter in detail. To my mind, the ideal aim of education, that which we as teachers should place as the guiding star to all our efforts, is to teach our children the beauty of holiness and the holiness of beauty; to teach them to see the beautiful as an expression of the eternal, and to recognise the true, the

\* It is anticipated that teachers will utilise this opportunity to make the curriculum of their school more real, more instinct with life to the children, by bringing the subjects and methods into close touch with the environment and daily life of the children, and that no longer shall a great gulf be fixed between the home life and the school life of the child. This does not mean making our curriculum a utilitarian one, but rather a living one. Here is a school fixed in a certain geographical position, which fact should mainly condition the curriculum; at any rate, that is the stated wish of those in authority. They have divested themselves of the responsibility of prescribing a curriculum for every school in England and Wales, and have thrown this duty upon those best cognisant with those local conditions, namely, the teachers and managers. This responsibility is a heavy one, for upon its success will depend that of the school and its scholars.

beautiful, and the good. Then will they see the lack of harmony; the want of sympathy; indeed, the ugliness of sin. That is an ideal. Let us come down to the earth again.

I would say that a system of education, to be of real permanent value, must consist of a preparation for life—for complete living. The curriculum must be a living one. "How rarely," says an American writer, "do the problems of life accord with those of the school! In school the question is, 'What do you know?' In life it becomes, 'What can you do?'" Our most serious problem is to bridge this gulf between school and life, and this must be done by making our curriculum not a utilitarian one, as demanded by Herbert Spencer, but a living one—one based upon child-experience.

"One of the best tests of a system of education is the preparation it gives for life in a liberal sense. When a child, leaving school behind, develops into a citizen, what tests are applied to him? The questions submitted to

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A curriculum *peculiarly appropriate* to your schools should be devised, bearing in mind the truth that your reward will be in proportion to your labours, and that there must be a unity in your curriculum before success can be assured. Each subject of instruction must be looked upon, not as one of a set of pigeon-holes, but as one element in a beautiful design. The moral and intellectual sides must mutually co-operate. There should in a good school be no one element unduly dwarfed or developed; there should be a perfect harmony and balance between every subject and method of the school. We are forming as far as possible, as far as in us lies, a machine perfected and designed only for the development of fine characters. "By their fruits ye shall know them." If your school is turning out good men and women, worthy citizens, of this great Empire, be sure that the machine is working perfectly, and that every part in the machine is well looked after by the workman.

his judgment in his relations to the family and to society call for a quick and varied knowledge of men, insight into character, and for a large amount of practical information of natural science. He is asked to vote intelligently on social, political, sanitary and economic questions, to judge of men's motives, opinions and character; to vote upon or perhaps to direct the management of poor-houses, asylums, and penitentiaries; in towns to decide questions of drainage, police, water supply, public health, and school administration, to make contracts for public buildings and bridges, to grant licenses and franchises, to serve on juries as representatives of the people. These are not professional matters alone; they are the common duties of all citizens of a sound mind."

"These things each person should know how to judge, whether he be a blacksmith, a merchant, or a house-keeper. In all such matters he must be not only a judge of others, but an actor under the guidance of right motives and information."

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I consider that it is this freedom, this power of working out our own salvation, which is given to teachers and managers, that is the really vital and all-important characteristic of the new Code. The able and enthusiastic teacher will at last be able to show us the sure possibilities of his mind and power, and I anticipate that the results will in many cases surprise and delight us. Imagine the joy of the artist or poet working out the conception of his mind untrammelled by any necessities of pot-boiling, and we may then realise perhaps the satisfaction, the keen anticipations of future triumphs, with which the new Code is greeted by teachers throughout the country. The effect of such liberty may be seen to-day in our best infant schools, where the noblest and most valuable traits of child-life are being developed in a beautiful atmosphere and under a *régime* philosophical and yet lovable. To enter such schools is to many visitors an education, and to many of us the

“Again in the bringing up of children, in the domestic arrangements of every home, and in a proper care for the minds and bodies of both parents and children, a multitude of practical problems from each of the great fields of real knowledge must be met and solved.” (McMurry.)

Before proceeding to discuss what these two fields of *Real* knowledge may be, let us consider what the attitude of the primary school to the State should be.

The primary school is, above all else, *a training place for future citizens*, not a preparatory school for any class, neither workmen nor merchants, but *for all*.

#### MORAL STRENGTH.

The real stability, permanence, and power of a State is not measured by the number of its soldiers, the strength of its ironclads, nor yet the depth of its exchequer; but rather by the moral strength of its citizens; by the uncompromising firmness of its manhood to the eternal

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regret has been keen that this admirable system of training ceases when a child has reached the momentous age of seven years.

Owing to our national respect for the virtue of self-help, our grants in the past have been largely made on the principle that unto those that have even more shall be added, and from those that have not shall be taken away even that which they have. The new Code has adopted the converse principle, and it is they whose needs are greatest who will perhaps benefit most within prescribed limits.

This will, I trust, have an immediate and far-reaching effect on those schools situated in poor districts, whose funds were all too little for the demands of modern progress. I hope and believe that an immediate improvement will be noticed in the premises and equipment of such schools, and that the children of these poorer districts will, as most certainly they should, enjoy precisely the same advantages and privileges as children of more favoured localities.—*Extracted from an address on 'The New Code.'*

principles of Justice and Truth. The fortress of a national as of an individual life is moral strength; a wide tolerant outlook on life—a broad sympathy and a many-sided interest. Here, then, is the function of our primary school. To build fine characters, to create broad, tolerant sympathies, based upon experience and interest—that is our task.

“One of the most distinctive features of recent Herbartian thought is that all instruction, even in what we regard as non-moral subjects, such as science, mathematics, linguistics, profane history and literature, should tend directly and powerfully to the formation of moral, not to say religious, character. If this view has more than a sentimental validity, it is worthy of the most serious attention; for it is evident to every thoughtful man that our public schools have been intellectualized beyond what is best for the individual, and the general moral welfare.” (De Garmo.)

“To know everything is to forgive everything,” said a great writer. It is lack of knowledge that is the mother of intolerance. Our lives too often run in very narrow channels. We must find a wider outlook on life, a larger horizon, a fuller experience. It is in the primary school that characters are formed. “Many of the most important lessons of life must be learned and converted into habit long before professional (or any kind of technical) studies are begun. Before the boy decides to be a merchant or a dentist he must decide whether he will be an honest man or a rogue, a law-abiding citizen or a disturber, narrow and bigoted or charitable and liberal. Until these things are settled, and settled aright, it is an impertinence to talk of a profession.” (McMurry.)

If, then, it be true that our aim is to train up fine

characters even more than clever scholars, it is evident that our curriculum must be conditioned by this avowed aim. Such a singleness of aim, such a solidarity of purpose, is of the highest pedagogic value, and will, I feel sure, make our work in school much more interesting and instructive. There is nothing so prolific of routine, of dreariness, as a lack of, or a confusion of aim. Let it be once definitely recognised that the whole curriculum is devoted to and concentrated upon the development of character and there will ensue a criterion of curricula of the greatest value. "Every educative school will endeavour to have the contemplation of (moral) things become a necessity to the scholars, communion with nature a source of the purest joy, the society of great historical personages an elevation, the devotion to everything beautiful and noble a recreation, and the search and struggle for clearness and truth a hearty purpose."

So the purpose and aim of our school is training men and women for life. Character building is our work,—that is, "the incorporation of knowledge into habit." It has been well said that "not discipline *and* knowledge" should be our aim, but rather "discipline through knowledge;" hence our criterion of the elements of the curriculum should be: In what respect will this knowledge be a means of discipline? But further, this knowledge must be real—it must be capable of assimilation by the child, and hence must be related to and based upon the child's experience.

Ziller, the German educational reformer, put his questions thus:—

- (1.) What must be selected from human knowledge as the subject matter of instruction?
- (2.) How must these studies be co-ordinated so as to



conduce to the most perfect mastery of knowledge, the clearest insight into moral relations and the formation of the highest moral ideals, the best moral disposition, the best moral habits?

(3.) What method of teaching will best further the above-named ends?

The guiding principles he adopts are:—

(1.) The conception of moral training through instruction in the common school branches, keeping the five moral ideas in close touch, with the content of the various studies.

(2.) The apperception of children or their natural thought processes, founded upon acquired knowledge and social experience, as the only reliable guide to the selection and management of studies, together with the best methods of teaching them.

(3.) The necessity of developing in the pupils an inherent, far-reaching, and abiding interest in study as a moral revelation of the world. (De Garmo.)

Much of our efforts are wasted because we forget this cardinal truth of apperception.

“No one hears anything except what he knows, no one perceives anything except what he has experienced.” We are continually asking too much of our pupils.

“We presuppose in him a great store of experiences, an abundance of sense perceptions and ethical observations, and fundamental ideas of time and space, which he has either not at all or else not with the desirable clearness.” (Lange.) But besides being based upon the experiences of children, our instruction must appeal directly to the child’s interest; it must be real and living.

It may be noted that to maintain the interest of

children under 12 years of age for more than half an hour is very difficult indeed—so shorter lessons might well be introduced into our time tables.

But this interest of which I have spoken must be direct interest, that is, created by the matter of the lesson itself, not by indirect interest arising from ambition or hope of reward. I think we should be very chary of introducing such indirect interest arising from rivalry and ambition into the primary school, for in their train follow germs of many sad faults. "The main interest of children must be attracted by what we call 'real knowledge' subjects, that is, those treating of people (history, stories, etc.), and those treating of plants, animals, and other natural objects (Natural Science Topics.) Grammar, arithmetic, and spelling are chiefly 'form' studies, and have less native attraction to children. Secondly, it may be laid down as a fact of experience that children will be more touched and stimulated by 'particular' persons and objects in nature than by any general propositions or laws or classifications. They prefer seeing a particular palm tree to hearing a general description of palms. A narrative of some special deed of kindness moves them more than a discourse on kindness. They feel a natural drawing towards real, definite persons and things, and an indifference or repulsion towards generalities. They prefer the story to the moral." (McMurry.)

Nothing interests a child that he cannot understand, and he cannot understand a thing outside his experience. All instruction must be real, must be based upon child experience.

The geography taught should be that of home and school, then county, and country, and all the rest based firmly on this bed-rock of child experience. The aim is

to give the child definite, clear conceptions of what we mean by certain geographical terms. Upon this home geography is built the geography of later years. The Alps then become 18 Kilvey Hills piled one on top of the other, the Thames is ten Tawes rushing together to the sea, and London is fifty Swanseas growing side by side.

Again, in history, instead of plunging with our pupils and Julius Cæsar into the English Channel, B.C. 55, we will take them over to Neath Abbey, or to Oystermouth Castle, and show them these relics of the past, and with these things before them, they will readily assimilate the tales we tell them. Then in the training to civic duties and citizenship we will show them the Town Hall, Guildhall, Law Courts, Parish Church, Public Library, the Workhouse, Railway Station, Post Office, etc., and upon these and around them build up many a stout structure of sound learning and good training. Similarly all the subjects of instruction should be based upon child experience. Instead of talking to children about millions or thousands of pounds, let us be content if they can handle half-crowns and sovereigns with ease, *and thrift*. But this pre-requisite of all knowledge, namely, experience, varies much in children of different localities. "Children who grow up among crippled factory hands, among consumptive weavers, and in woodless places; children who from birth have never seen sea or mountain, are all their lives lacking in the tones, accords, and stories that make up the poetry of the world."\* Generally speaking, children of a wealthier district have opportunities of gaining experience more quickly and more extensively than children from poorer

\* Golz "Buch der Kindheit" (quoted by Lange).

districts, so that schools attended by the former children should be able to adopt the more generous and wider curriculum.

This holds irrespective of the relative staffs of two such schools, but when it is remembered that too often poverty in staff accompanies poverty of experience in the children, it is seen at once how handicapped the poorer school is in the comparison.

### CHILDREN'S CHARACTERS.

But further than all this, I consider that in designing our curriculum, we shall best secure our unity of purpose by endeavouring, as far as possible, to secure a solidarity, a unity, and a co-ordination in all the subjects of instruction, and that the character purpose we have set before ourselves shall condition mainly what subjects we shall teach. To this end of training every element of the curriculum should be made to contribute. "The more the studies threaten to diverge, the firmer must the fusion of the individual parts be made, so that through all multiplicity and variety there shall never be lacking the fundamental condition of unity of consciousness for identity of personality, and therefore for the development of moral character."\* Children's characters are formed by example, not precept; they follow the examples of their companions, their teachers, and the historic characters whose lives they read of. This unifying of the curriculum is of the highest value, and concentrates from many directions the knowledge gained into a co-ordinated set of ideas. Dr. Rein states, "The ethical need demands that the teacher shall endeavour to concentrate the spiritual forces of the pupil so that they shall not be

\* Rein : "Das Erste Schuljahr" (quoted by De Garmo.)

dissipated, but shall in their union call forth strength, effective action. Without such concentration of mental forces no moral character is conceivable."

But there is a distinctly practical side to this question of a unified curriculum. If no subject should be taught which is unessential to the avowed aim of the school, then it is evident that here we have a ready means of getting rid of undesirable elements in the curriculum. Our first duty is to get rid of non-essential elements, and not to allow others of a similar character to creep in again either by the advocacy of the specialist or the predilections of the enthusiast.

#### VARIETY OF CURRICULA.

Hence our curriculum must be in harmony with the surroundings, and be real and living. Every element in it must be based upon child experience, and be selected solely for its intrinsic value in character-building. To fulfil these conditions for each school involves a variety of curricula, and so it will be impossible, and certainly very undesirable, for us to attempt to suggest a curriculum for every school in a district. It is the duty of those who best know the local conditions of the school to draw up the curriculum. At the same time, we may discuss with propriety those essentials of a curriculum upon which this variety is ultimately based. The Board of Education states, "In all schools the rudimentary instruction admits of little variety, for in all schools the younger children must learn to read and write and to understand what they read, to express their own meaning correctly, whether in speech or writing, and to acquire some mastery of the elementary principles of arithmetic. In all schools also, boys should learn to

draw, and girls to sew, and both should learn something of their own country, and be taught to observe, and to acquire for themselves some knowledge of the facts of nature."

It is true that a knowledge of the three R's is indispensable, and that they must always form the basis of the primary school curriculum. But, after all, they are but weapons for the acquisition of knowledge, not knowledge itself—they are formal studies, not culture studies. If this truth were more generally recognised, a considerable change would appear in our school-work, and less time would probably be devoted to putting an unnecessarily fine edge on three most useful weapons. In writing, for example, I believe that valuable time would be saved in our upper classes if we insisted that *all* writing should be well done, not some of it, and so doing away with the necessity of copy-book practice. In reading, what one may term the *rhetorical embellishments* might, I think, be largely dropped, and clear, natural enunciation alone cultivated, so that more time may be devoted to the matter, and less to the form of the lesson. To read with expression and vivacity is an admirable accomplishment, but to read with thought is a greater gift. One of the highest aims we can set before ourselves is to train our pupils how to read and appreciate a good book, how out of the rich storehouse of human experience, as set forth in books, to extract whatever is good and noble and true.\*

\* "One of the best founded causes of complaint against our schools, both public and private, has been the fact that masses of our people who have obtained their education in these schools are not habitual readers of good literature. They have not formed such habits and tastes in childhood as to make all the years of their lives add knowledge by reading. They do not draw inspiration

## THE STUDY OF NATURE.

To engender a taste for good literature, a liking for the society and communion of the great world-spirits, to nourish high ideals amid humble surroundings, are mental attitudes which our primary schools can create and cherish. Many authorities hold that a more important feature of the curriculum, from the pedagogic point of view, than even the three R's, and certainly equally indispensable, is a training in the truths of history and nature. If character formation is our aim, then it is our duty to train children to right judgment. But our judgments are concerned mainly with Man and Nature. How, then, it is urged can we better train our pupils to form a right judgment on human affairs than by allowing them to profit from the accumulated experience of mankind in history, and the aggregated knowledge of the race in the study of Nature? \* It is the duty of the teacher to supplement the experience of the child by

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and information easily, lovingly, and habitually from books, the great cold-storage houses of the best of the world's experience. They believe in good reading but in their homes many of them read little, or go by choice to literature that is worthless or morally and socially debilitating. The schools have trained children in the mechanics of reading but have not given that enjoyment in good literature, that zest for books, that come only from continued interest and pleasure in their perusal. Recent experience in the schools has proved what has long been claimed by our wisest teachers—that the study of text books must be supplemented by much practice in reading interesting books. Children need plenty of opportunity to read attractive stories, biographies, tales of travel and adventure, till the zest for information and interest, growing by what it feeds upon, begets a craving for wholesome knowledge which can best be satisfied by reading." (O. E. Wells.)

\* See Ufer's Introduction, page 63.

teaching him something of the world of nature surrounding him, and to extend his daily intercourse with man by bringing him into touch with the lives and thoughts of the great Dead. These two elements of the curriculum, nature study and history, are the two essentials—the two foundation stones upon which, using the tools he is taught to use, namely, the three R's, the whole structure of school training and discipline is based. History, I may add, is of all these elements the most valuable for the cultivation of character, for, as I have already said, it is example, not precept, that teaches.

If this be true, then how indispensable does a training in the truths of history appear to be to everyone!

“A little reflection will show that we are only demanding object lessons in the field of moral education, extensive, systematic object lessons; choice experiences and episodes from human life, simple and clear, painted in natural colours, as shown by our best history and literature. To appreciate the virtues and vices, to sympathise with better impulses, we must travel beyond words and definitions till we come in contact with the personal deeds that first gave rise to them.” (McMurry.) This history, in the lower classes, will, I suppose, be mainly biographical, and, as far as possible, the heroes would be sons of our own land, “bone of our bone and flesh of our flesh.”

We have now gathered together the elements of a primary school curriculum, namely, history and nature study, and the three indispensable weapons—the three R's, together with drawing for boys, needlework for girls, and singing and physical exercise for both. Under the terms nature study and history is involved a knowledge of geography. A course of object lessons on home geography and history in the lower classes will lead up



to a knowledge based upon the growing experience of the child of the wider world around, selecting, of course, those portions which by their interest most readily appeal to the pupil.

In the home geography of the lower classes there are seven topics for discussion, which cover a wide field of observation, and form the environment of the child.

(1.) Food products and the occupations connected with them

(2.) Clothing materials used, and their manufacture, etc.

(3.) Building materials.

(4.) Local industries, railways, bridges, canals, roads, etc.

(5.) Local surface features, etc., hills, streams, valleys, capes, bays, etc.

(6.) Town and county governments, town hall, county hall, offices, etc.

(7.) Climate and seasons, sun, wind, storms, etc.

This course cannot and should not be separated from the course of lessons in local history. (See McMurry.)

#### PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.

Unnecessary details should be avoided, and the course in geography should be mainly physical, not political. A great deal too much attention and time have hitherto been given to political geography. No elements of the curriculum are so teeming with interest and life as geography and history, yet how often are the dry bones offered to the children in the shape of lists of capes, islands, or battles. In geography teaching it is, I think, essential to keep to the solid ground of "child experience," lest we lose touch with the earth, and find ourselves

teaching in the clouds. We may, however, legitimately cultivate the scientific use of the imagination, and by this means the child can follow us from the banks of the Tawe to the Banks of the Nile ; and it is sound teaching, I think, to get the child to form a conception of the valley of the Thames or Mississippi based upon his knowledge of the Tawe valley.

Such types might be taken and treated exhaustively in a course of lessons, *e.g.*, Swansea as a metallurgical centre, the Mumbles as a holiday resort, Gower as an agricultural district, Landore as a railway centre. All these might be taken in detail, cause and effect developed, and the whole crystallized and consolidated by a series of school excursions, *then*, having this base-rock of experience to rest upon, we may build our fuller course of world geography, So in history we may select our local types upon which all subsequent knowledge may be firmly built.

Let me say something as to arithmetic. The same general considerations apply ; the number exercises would be largely concrete and within the child's experience, hence the inutility of training children with big quantities beyond their experience.

Accuracy is desirable, but intelligence is essential. We must see also that our line of communications is unbroken. Constant revision will ensure this—not revision at the end of the term or year.

### MENTAL GYMNASTICS.

In the upper classes of our schools, much time is at present devoted to what have, by unkind critics, been called "arithmetical conundrums," exercises in variations of stocks and shares, discount—banker's and

otherwise, compound interest, etc. Now, I confess, I am somewhat doubtful as to the practical or educational value of such mental gymnastics. It seems to me here again we are putting too fine an edge on the razor, instead of shaving with it. I doubt if they are of much use in after life, and I feel sure that much of the time devoted to such arithmetic in the upper classes might be more profitably devoted to introducing the child to the elements of algebra or geometry. The truths taught in arithmetic are particular, those of algebra universal, and it is a great step for the pupil to make, passing from the particular to the universal. Moreover, most of these problems in higher arithmetic are much more readily solved by algebraical methods. Algebra is to arithmetic what the Mauser is to the old Brown Bess. It carries further, quicker, and surer. It would, I think, be an advantage in all suitably-staffed schools that boys and girls in their eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth years should be taught the elements of algebra. Just as algebra is a finer mental weapon than arithmetic, so also is the introduction of the child to another language than English a finer discipline than those lessons in elementary logic which have hitherto gone by the name of grammar in our schools. It is unnecessary for me to justify the statement that the technique of English grammar has been taken too early and too fully in the school. Children have never yet been taught to speak and write Queen's English by a course in grammar. It is by *doing* the child learns; by hearing and reading good English does he acquire the power himself. The grammar necessary for primary scholars can, and should, generally be taught incidentally in lessons on reading and writing. The time thus saved may profitably be devoted in some schools (where the

staff and environment are favourable) to introducing the children to the elements of another language. The mental discipline thus obtained is most valuable, and the moral content of such lessons is not inappreciable. I refrain from discussing the commercial value of such additions to the curriculum, for I hold that commercial and industrial considerations should not be discussed when designing the primary school course. That is why I am dubious as to the value of introducing such non-essential elements as book-keeping, shorthand, commercial subjects generally, and agriculture into the curriculum of the primary school.

Further, the time at our disposal is limited, and, I need hardly add, that unless a subject of study receives adequate time, it had far better not be included at all.

Nature study or natural science, I have already said, is to my mind an essential element of the unified curriculum.

#### “COMMON THINGS:”

In the lower classes this would take the form of a series of object lessons on “Common Things.” In the rural school such things are the objects that surround the child in every direction. The flowers of the roadside hedge, and garden; the leaves of the trees, the seed, buds, and blossoms of these; the crops of roots, grain and grass—all afford fit subject for discussion and observation. The Board of Education in a recent circular states, “The Board would deprecate the idea of giving in rural elementary schools professional training in practical agriculture, but they think that teachers should lose no opportunity of giving their scholars an intelligent knowledge of the surroundings of ordinary rural life and of showing them how to observe the processes of Nature

for themselves. One of the main objects of the teacher should be to develop in every boy and girl the habit of inquiry and research so natural to children; they should be encouraged to ask their own questions about the simple phenomena of nature which they see around them, and themselves to search for flowers, plants, insects, and other objects to illustrate the lessons which they have learnt with their teacher." Country excursions are suggested as a means of aiding such instruction as is here sketched. As Ruskin says, "It ought to be made an important portion of the weekly work of every school to take the children into the country to breathe its balm, grow strong in its healthy breezes, see and enjoy its beauties, and receive there that glorious training of sense and soul, head and heart, possible only beneath the blue vault of heaven. In truth, the country should become an outer uncovered class-room—a divine museum—utilised by our teachers."

#### AND SCHOOL EXCURSIONS.

But what of town schools? I will quote from a German publication. "Our excursions will, of course, meet with great difficulties in our large cities, in overcrowded schools, and also for the want of good sense on the part of some parents. There it is best to divide the school into sections for the purpose, not to mind the talk of the idle crowd, and finally to overcome, through the devoted and faithful discharge of our duties, the prejudices of parents, who do not understand the importance and necessity of our efforts. At least one capable teacher, Dr. Bartholomai, succeeded in this way even in a city like Berlin in carrying out these school excursions regularly. He, too, found idle starers, who cracked jokes

at his expense, and he heard it now and then said by the Berlin Philistines 'that the children's clothes and shoes were being ruined uselessly ;' but he maintained his purpose."

We, also, can do the same thing. We must expect ridicule, but to-day in Germany it is only the surprised Britisher who gazes after a troop of children with their teacher in the busy streets of Cologne, the ruins of Heidelberg Castle, or on the Rhine boat ; so will it be to-morrow here. These healthy, stimulating walks will prove of the highest intellectual and physical worth, and their moral effect will be equally great in creating a love of home and a pride of country upon which will rise firmly the pedestal of a broader patriotism. As for the expense of such excursions, I think that Nature has provided the youth with the best horse, namely. "Shanks Mare." There is too much riding, and too little walking now-a-days. There is nothing more interesting and instructive than a jaunt through a country on our legs. In Germany one often meets a troop of students, stick in hand and knapsack on back, swinging gaily along the highway to the time and tune of one of their beautiful songs. Thus is their holiday vacation most profitably and wisely spent.

In the town school, sections might be taken in turn on these excursions. Some of these excursions might be out to the country, but others might very profitably be to various places of interest and instruction in the town. It might be possible for you to obtain the privilege for your boys and girls occasionally to visit some of the flour mills, the railway stations, the generating workshop of the tramcar company, the docks, the chemical works, tin-plating works, and steel works, analytical laboratories, and other places in the

town. You could take your pupils into the public parks, showing them the various trees and flowers cultivated there, to the sea shore, and show them something of the wonders of the deep, to the Town Library, to the Royal Institution and the Training College, and to the General Post Office. I feel sure that, were the officials concerned properly approached, they would gladly assist you in your endeavours to make the curriculum of your school a real living one. It is only in this way that we can hope to bridge the gulf between the school and life, and make our teaching sound by basing it on experience, and concentrating it upon real things.

#### NATURE STUDY.

In selecting the course of lessons in elementary science or nature study for the upper classes, the same principles will be applied. The course should be real and local, and based upon the experience of the children who attend the school. It has been urged that such a course should be mainly made up of measurement. I disagree with this, as I feel that the interest of the child would soon wane, and his mind become repelled by the apparent lack of variety. Rather should he be taught to see the wonderful beauties and ingenious adaptations of Nature, by being shown the infinite variety of the world around him. The idea underlying such a scheme of lessons should be largely that of the Type. By carefully selecting your types, you will be able in your treatment of these typical phenomena, whether in the animal, vegetable, or mineral kingdom, to illustrate the general laws and principles of the natural world; a study of a few insects will bring out the facts of mimicry and the use of colour as a protective instrument. The hoarding

of the squirrel, the busy industry of the ant, the cunning and cruelty of the cat, are typical phenomena, and general of a class. The adaptation of the organism of the horse, of the hare, and of the king-fisher to the necessities of environment, are interesting and instructive. The laws of development of birth and death may be illustrated by one concrete example, but extended to the whole living world. Such an adoption of "types" will be found a great relief, and will enable you to extend your sphere of operations to a much greater extent than would be possible otherwise.

In the rural school such a course of nature study would, I presume, deal with that aspect of science which bears upon the daily life of the farm and the cottage. Some elementary notions of zoology and botany, as illustrated by the local fauna and flora, lessons on the local rocks, local industries, together with discussions on local climatology, would form the main portions of such a course. Lessons on bee-keeping and poultry, on manuring and tillage, would help to bring the school nearer home, and these would be taught, not because of a utilitarian, but of an educational principle.

In this direction much may be done by simple experiments carried on in boxes in the schoolroom. Boxes of mould may be fertilized or sterilized, and the results of various seed compared. Other conditions of growth may be varied, and thus the children may be shown the effect of light, of manure (artificial and natural), of water, of lime and other earths, of different soils, of variation in crops by means of these simple experiments. In this direction much scope is possible for the individuality of each teacher. One may prefer to lay stress on this, another on that, branch of study.

In the town schools, again, the same principles in



drawing out a course in elementary science should be applied. The course would be an experimental one, and based, as far as possible, upon the school excursions, and be appropriate to the environment of the children, and with due emphasis laid upon those elements which the teacher himself considers most suitable to his staff and school. The local fauna, flora, geology, and physiography would be drawn upon, and the lessons would be closely co-ordinated with those of geography. The course in elementary science should, I consider, deal with facts, not abstractions, and like the object lessons which accompany or precede them, will be considered, not as opportunities for bringing a number of more or less unpalatable and uninteresting facts before the children, but rather as the opportunity, *par excellence*, of cultivating the children's power of observation and reasoning.

“ In the prosecution of this aim, we have to keep before us the necessity of presenting to the learners a clear, memorable, and, as far as possible, vivid picture of each plant and animal brought under their notice. We should make them see for themselves some, at least, of the leading characters in which it resembles or differs from other organisms. If it can be actually seen and handled, we should take care that they become personally acquainted with it. We should be able to tell them of its habits or instincts, its place of abode, its distribution, its usefulness or hurtfulness to man. In short, we should endeavour to ensure that at least some few plants and animals are made thoroughly familiar to the young as types from which a more extended knowledge may afterwards be reached. To the taught, success in this task brings incredible benefit. We stimulate their habits of observation and reflection ; we rouse in them an intelli-

gent interest in the phenomena of life ; we awaken in them a sense of reverence and sympathy for all living things ; and we open up to them glimpses of the infinite variety and beauty, the marvellous adaptations, and the orderly plan of the vegetable and animal worlds. To the teacher the task will become one of the most interesting parts of his work. Let him not for a moment suppose that he need be a botanist and zoologist to be able adequately to fill it. The acquirements demanded of him are not greater than every intelligent member of the community ought to possess. The main essential is that he should make acquaintance with the objects which he brings under the notice of his pupils, that he may describe with the freshness and vividness of personal knowledge, and be able to act as guide in the observations made by those under his charge. Every year he will find his own experience widen and his confidence increase, while at the same time he will note how much more he can see in a familiar plant or animal than he could when he first began to speak about it. His teaching will be entirely untechnical and unsystematic, but though necessarily fragmentary, it should be sound so far as it goes. It should involve nothing to be unlearnt afterwards, but on the contrary should provide a solid foundation of elementary knowledge on which any future superstructure of scientific acquirement may be securely built. Above all, as far as may be expedient, it should excite a desire for the attainment of further knowledge on the part of the pupils." (Geikie.)

The function of science training in the primary school is to develop a certain mental attitude towards natural phenomena, to develop a habit of observing and reasoning on things, to train the pupil to realise the great law of cause and effect—that nothing happens without due

and adequate cause, and to encourage him to drop the naturally childish reasoning on phenomena, and to abolish the *deus ex machina*, to see that everything is in accordance with experience and reason, above all morally to recognise the inevitableness of events, the overwhelming power of environment, and so to develop toleration and sympathy in our dealings with our fellow-men. The child's appreciation of the beautiful may be cultivated, and his ethical side be touched by the variety and inevitable sequence of natural phenomena—by a training, in nature study.

Hitherto our discussion on the curriculum of the primary school has been confined to those elements which develop mainly the mental powers of the pupil. It is now our duty to say a word as to the cultivation of his physical powers.

I have had to omit the training of the æsthetic side of the child owing to pressure of time. Something is being done in this direction by the art studies of our pupils, and an appeal, mute, but powerful, is made by the beautiful pictures and busts of many of our better-equipped schools.

#### CULTIVATION OF PHYSICAL POWERS.

One of the most characteristic features of our best infant schools to-day is their cultivation of the child's self-activity by means of suitable occupations. His little hands are taught with patient care, and his fingers are trained to be supple and dexterous in many a beautiful and educative occupation. Yet after so much loving care and labour, behold the child, having reached the crucial seventh year, proceeds to another school where all this training is stopped. If the principle of reaching a child's mind through his senses is sound, then surely it is applicable to children over, as well as under, seven years of

age. Consequently, manual occupations should form an essential feature of the primary school course, certainly of the large urban schools. Boys from seven to ten years of age should, I think, be taught exercises in cardboard work, clay-modelling, wire-work, book-binding, basket-work, etc., which exercises would lead up naturally to the manual work in wood and iron of the upper classes of the school. I am convinced that were our boys taught to use their hands and fingers properly we should soon see the loafers and loungers of life disappear. In country schools I should like to see cottage gardening taken up.

Girls have hitherto been more fortunate, as they generally receive instruction in needlework and cookery. It is unnecessary for me to point out how much harm is done to household and community by a lack of knowledge on the part of mothers, of the elements of cookery, needlework, and housewifery.

Here, again, the moral value of this training is to be emphasised. Such a course of manual training contributes its full to the moral content of the school curriculum: a child is by this taught in concrete form, so to speak, the virtues of carefulness, orderliness, patience, and perseverance.

I have put forward the curriculum of the primary school as my basis for discussion, but I hope you will be guided by your own ideals. Let your school be, so far as in you lies, the embodiment in living form of your ideals; stamp upon it your own personality. Do not look to others for your curriculum—make it yourselves. Let me, however, add that it will be heavy and responsible work, involving, in my opinion, much thought and careful calculation. That is why I have this morning endeavoured to set forth what I may call the criteria of curricula.

## THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY.

THE aim of geography teaching in the lower classes of primary schools is considered to be to give the child clear mental concepts of what is meant by certain geographical terms,—that when you speak to a child of an isthmus or a cape, he is able to call up, not a string of words from the lumber-room of the memory, but a finely-chiselled concept, real and clear to him. That is the aim of the teaching of home geography, and to realise *this*, we must either take the child to the objects we tell him of—and much may be done in this way by means of properly organised class excursions—or, calling in the help of his imagination, we show him models in clay, sand, or plasticine of these objects. There is no other way, I think, of giving the child these mental concepts which are indispensable to success in the later teaching of geography proper. If a child has not at the proper time received these elements of correct thought, all his knowledge of geography picked up later on will suffer from indistinctness and vagueness of outline. It is evident, then, that, for successful teaching of geography, special pains must be taken to give the child these clear concepts, and that the most unsatisfactory method of teaching geography to the lower classes of the school is to give them small books, out of which they may learn by heart definitions of cape, island, and what not.

He is the wiser trainer, I think, who exhausts the geography of parish, province and country before touching any other, and lays special stress on physical geography. Often you will find that instead of taking, say, the county, or the country, as the unit for teaching, and exhausting the physical features of county, then the political facts of the county, the German or Swiss teacher will take the watershed and basin of a river as the unit, and exhaust the physical features and political facts of that area before proceeding to another river basin. The watershed is a natural unit—the county an artificial one. This method has one great advantage—you are able to show the children the relationship between certain facts—cause and effect come out—a most important matter. I cull the following from Dr. Klemm's book:—

“ A lesson in geography was listened to in a German school, where 70 boys sat together like sardines in a box. The teacher had nothing better than a medium-sized wall map made by himself. His mode of marking elevations was very simple and comprehensive, one which is well worth imitating. With pencil or pen he shaded the map by means of lines crossing each other at various angles. Thus he represented the topography of a country in a remarkably accurate manner, and this easy method enabled his pupils to judge at a glance as to the height of the land. They saw why certain rivers took such and such a course and no other; why certain cities were cold, others warm; why a river was navigable or not, according to the abruptness of the slope; why certain rivers flowing from great heights had a straighter course than those which had little fall and meandered through the plain; why certain lands are blessed with mild climates, being sheltered on the north side by high

and steep mountain ranges ; others had a rough climate, being exposed to the north wind." Here is another extract from the same book: "The Erz Gebirge (ore mountains) were once full of silver mines. At the time of Martin Luther (at the beginning of the 16th century) these mines drew a great number of people to Saxony, and particularly to that range of mountains. When the mines ceased to yield, the population, not being so fluctuating as it is now, was obliged to seize upon other modes of occupation. The slopes of the mountains being well provided with various kinds of wood, offered material for a variety of wood-working industries. The slopes being steep, the mountain brooks were turbulent, and gave an opportunity to build mills, which were first used for various purposes. Lastly, when the textile industry grew, this water power was utilised to serve that industry. The woods soon disappeared on the Erz mountains, they were literally used up, so the people had to resort to manufacturing pursuits almost entirely, agriculture being impossible. To-day the population of the Kingdom of Saxony is the densest of all Germany, and aside from that in Belgium, the densest in all Europe.

"It was cause and effect constantly, and the attention and responsiveness of the boys were truly delightful."

The question "Why?" should be asked oftener in a geography lesson. Thus the reasons for the rapid growth and importance of such towns as Cardiff, Port Talbot, or Swansea are apt to be forgotten or obscured if taken as items in the Geography of Wales. One week we take the physical features of the valleys of the Taff or the Avon, and it may be weeks afterwards before the political facts of the same area engage our attention.

A Swiss Inspector recommends that the best way of teaching geography is by means of imaginary journeys

He writes: "In order to become acquainted with Germany, we follow the current of the Rhine; we notice, whilst going from south to north, the morphology of the land on the right and left banks, the peculiarities of the river itself, its navigation, inundation, curved course, formation of islands, tributaries, towns, political divisions, etc. With the other rivers we shall do the same, and obtain a number of useful detailed ideas, and at the same time a general survey of the relief and general slope of Germany. The districts at the mouths of rivers offer us an opportunity for explaining such phenomena as a delta, dune, harbour, tide, etc., for, as a matter of course, whenever a new feature is introduced for the first time, it must be explained. In the same way we are led by the Rhone, or the railway line, as, for example, that of Paris-Havre, to and through France—by way of St. Gothard Railway to Italy, by the Inn, the Danube, and the Veralberg Railway to Austria. Scandinavia can be treated in outline by a voyage along the coast and a journey from west to east. In like manner Spain; Russia requires a journey from north to south. Of course, neither time nor material for representation allows us even to mention a great number of the interesting details offered by each country; what is important is to point out the most characteristic. To avoid misunderstanding, we repeat that after having given a detailed treatment of certain parts, a summary of the whole must follow as to its orographic and hydrographic climate, political and other divisions."

"America would be completed thus:—

1. The voyage to New York affording an opportunity for a description of a steamer, a cable, the ocean, storms, the city.

2. A journey through the continent, including the



Pacific Railway, the plain of the Coast, the Alleghanies, St. Louis, the Prairies, Rocky Mountains, and San Francisco, and introducing trappers and pioneer settlers.

3. A voyage on the St. Lawrence and Canadian Lakes.

4. A voyage on the Mississippi, taking note of the plantations along its banks.

5. A voyage round the coasts.

6. A survey of North America, and its importance to Europe." (Reynolds).

Another aspect of geography teaching is emphasized in some German and American schools. It is that of the "Type." A town, or a mountain, or a river, known more or less familiarly to the children, is taken as the type, and exhaustively treated by the teacher. Thus, for example, instead of attempting to give the pupil some idea of the various metallurgical centres of the British Isles, the teacher would take Swansea, or, say, Cwmavon, and in a series of lessons carefully examine the physical features of one of those towns, emphasizing all those points such as nearness to the sea—good dock accommodation, suitable railway or canal communication—position in reference to Spain, Mexico, and other ore producing countries—which may be counted as factors in fixing the industries of those towns. A little consideration will show you that the possibilities of such a course are very great. Again, such a teacher, instead of giving the pupil a list of the mountains and mountain systems of England and Wales to learn by rote, would rather devote several lessons to a very complete and careful study of, say, the Breconshire Beacons, or the mountain system of Glamorgan. By fixing these types, he would have in the future a constant measure and standard to refer to. He would tell the pupil, for

example, that the Alps are in some respects similar, in others different, from the Beacons. "Imagine, boys," he would say, "that the Beacons went up five times higher than they do go, and that instead of snow on the tops in the winter only, it is there all the year round, and the valleys, instead of bubbling streams of water have slowly-creeping rivers of ice. You know how quiet and dark and solemn it is in our deeper valleys in Wales. Think, then, how much more solemn, quiet, sombre, and isolated it must be in valleys five times as deep as ours are."

I often think that imagination, sympathy, and tact are more important to a teacher than to anyone else.

In geography teaching, careful cultivation of the child's imagination is one of the chief conditions of success, and, indeed, this training of the imagination is in itself of the very highest pedagogic value.

What should be the aim of the geography-teaching in the upper classes of the school? Well, I have no hesitation in answering—Correct map-reading, which might well be preceded by some lessons in correct picture reading, by which means the "children are taught to realise different ways of representation, to compare the scenery of various regions, to appreciate the difference caused in a landscape by change in the point of view, and above all to make the greatest use of a picture as an instrument which partly explains and complements a map, and partly requires a map to explain and complement it." (Reynolds.)

Let me say at once that I postulate *good maps*—though, unfortunately, such are rare. "The teacher should," it has been said, "dispense with the text book, and rely wholly upon the map, and lead the pupil to

discover the fundamental physical features of each country for himself."

In the elementary schools of Berlin, the atlas used contains the following plans and maps, which are drawn up on the concentric plan.

Page 1 contains six pictures and plans. The first figure is a perspective view of the inside of a schoolroom, and side by side with it is a map plan of that room. Then follows a perspective view of the whole schoolhouse, and map-plan of the building. This is followed by a perspective view of a portion of the city and its map-plan. The schoolhouse is again found on this map.

Page 2 contains a larger perspective view of a landscape, accompanied by a map-plan. We find the same schoolhouse and portion of the town here again.

Page 3 gives an imaginary landscape, with its accompanying map-plan.

Page 4 contains a minute city-plan of Berlin.

Page 5 gives the same plan of Berlin, but on a smaller scale, and taking in surrounding towns and villages within a radius of 12 kilometres.

Page 6 gives a map of the district of Potsdam, of which Berlin is the centre.

Page 7 gives a physical map of the province of Brandenburg, with Berlin as centre, and also a local map showing railways entering Berlin.

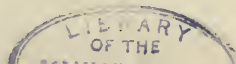
Page 8 is a political map of the same province, and a local map of the city of Potsdam.

Page 9 gives a physical map of Germany.

Page 10 gives a political map of Germany, and a local map of the Thuringian principalities.

Pages 11 and 12 are physical and political maps of Europe.

Page 13.—Map of Asia.



Page 14.—Map of Africa, with local maps of the Nile Delta, Cape Colony, and Cape Town.

Pages 15 and 16.—Maps of North and South America.

Page 17 contains the map of Australia and Oceania, with local maps of Victoria-Land, and an illustration of the formation of coral reefs.

Page 18.—Palestine.

Page 19.—Eastern Hemisphere.

Page 20.—Western Hemisphere.

Page 21 represents the Northern sky and chief constellations.

Page 22 is devoted to mathematical geography. It contains illustrations of eclipses, of the earth's orbit, the solar system, and of phases of the moon.

The map should be looked upon as an unknown region, in which the pupils make discoveries. Let me quote from an American publication: "It is premised that a good wall-map hangs in view of the class, a map which by either drawing or colouring shows not only topography and hydrography, but also the distribution of highlands and lowlands and the altitude and character of mountains. Any map that does not do this has no place in the schoolroom. It may have its uses as a reference map for ascertaining the location of towns, boundaries, railroads, etc., but as a foundation for the study of geography, it is not merely valueless, it is positively injurious. The pupils have before them the corresponding hand-map of their atlases. These, equally with the wall-map, should show the physical features."

With reference to map-drawing, it may be pointed out that map-drawing is not a method of teaching geography, but rather of revising the facts already acquired by means of map-reading. Map-drawing is not, I consider, the best means of teaching geography,

but it is certainly a valuable means of testing the teaching of geography, and of summarising acquired facts. In fact, the map-drawing would come at the end, not at the commencement of the study of a country. All geography teaching, in fine, consists of three steps—

Observation,

Description,

Representation,

and map-drawing is *representation*.

The only "text book" required for the teaching of geography is a good atlas—but, unfortunately, that is just what we lack. Our school maps and our atlases should be such that a child placed in front of such a map would be able to state in detail the physical features and the concomitant political facts with as much accuracy as if he held a text book in his hand. Moreover, here the process would be an intellectual one; the child's reasoning faculties are being trained; he is taught the moral significance of Nature's great law of cause and effect. You will find the *silhouette*, or outline maps, so much used on the Continent, of great use. The average map is not, I fear, drawn up by teachers; at any rate, the relative importance of facts is not kept in mind. A map which contains every (or many a) town and hamlet, stream and hill, is bound to be, to say the least, inconveniently crowded, and the great typical facts are obscured; but in the *silhouette* map the teacher chooses his facts for insertion in the map, and so gives one a criterion of the teaching.\*

I think I should be meeting the wishes of many present if I, after having discussed the principles under-

\* Most school maps devote too much attention to political and too little to physical features, and are consequently of small use for a training in map reading.

lying the methods adopted of teaching geography in other schools, were to state in general terms what appears to be desirable in teaching geography by means of object lessons. I do this not as wishing to suggest a syllabus which might hamper the individuality of the best teachers. This individuality I consider of much more value than an adherence to any system, however admirable. We must preserve that self-reliance and resourcefulness so characteristic of the English and Welsh teacher, even though by so doing we may fail to reach the level of continental teachers.

It seems to me that the starting point must be made by giving the children definite, clear ideas of distance and direction—and, as you know, children learn by doing. Let us then obtain a measuring tape, and let our pupils measure the classroom, the central hall, the desks, the playground, and so on. The next step will be to fix the idea of a plan of anything—but here we must overcome the difficulty of representing the playground on a blackboard, namely, of drawing to scale. Next would come picture-reading, as I have already sketched it. Plans and pictures, and, where possible, models of the class-room, the school, playground, adjacent buildings, and ultimately the town will follow, and the interest of this portion of the instruction would be increased by availing oneself of all points of historical interest in the town and neighbourhood, and illustrated by local photographs. As examples, one might mention the Runic Crosses of Llantwit, the Church of Llangynwyd and the story of Will Hopkin, Margam and its Abbey, Neath and its Abbey, and many another old-world tale that would make the lesson more vivid and real, and would kindle that love of home that is the basis of all true patriotism.

Next the Cardinal points would be taken up and fixed by the sun and shadow, next by the compass, and, lastly, by the North Star. Lessons on the lodestone and the mariner's compass would naturally come here. The map, and a comparison of it with a plan and picture, would follow and complete the work of the lowest class. The basis of the work of this class is to give the pupil a clear idea of his immediate surroundings—to crystallise, in fact, his experiences which hitherto were somewhat vague. The work of the next class is a continuation outwards from that of the first class. We increase the area of the circle in which the child lives, as, indeed, the child itself is doing. Here, in order to fix the child's ideas, we must avail ourselves of his experience and imagination. Of course, the ideal plan is to take the child to the things spoken of, but this is sometimes impracticable, though, as I have already said, much may be done in this direction by means of class excursions. Again, we may sometimes take our pupils into the playground, or a neighbouring height, and show them a river lake, cape, bay, and so on; or we may after a shower, show them in the streamlets of the playground a confluence, tributary, estuary, and many other interesting phenomena, whilst the slow sliding down of the snow from the school-roof will give them a rough idea of the movement of a glacier. Many such examples will occur to all on consideration. But, after all, our chief aid here will be sand, clay, and paper-pulp modelling. As to tray, that may vary from a flat piece of wood or cardboard up to the zinc-lined trays so common now. Some of these trays have glass bottoms to represent the water, and in one case I saw, this bottom was painted blue—an ingenious idea; in other trays, mirrors are placed as a base, and this, by means of its reflection,

heightens the idea of water, and helps the child's imagination—for these are all devices for aiding the child's imaginative powers. As for the material, silver sand, with a little salt added to it is coherent, clean, and easy to work. For permanent models, paper-pulp made by soaking waste paper in water is the best material, and when coloured and varnished, makes a pretty and useful model. Here, again, photographs and pictures should be used whenever possible, and it is very inadvisable to teach a child in this class anything that you cannot show him. The geography here again should be home geography; that is, the geography of the district around the school. Let me draw your attention in this connection to Scheme B in the suggested alternative courses in the Code. Here are the requirements for Class II.:

“Home geography, *e.g.*, roads, rivers, and chief building of the district illustrated by a map, and by the map of England.”

In teaching Class III. geography, much latitude and variety are possible, and I should like to see as much variety as is feasible maintained in the treatment of this subject. In any case, the parish and county would be the starting point, and these lessons, like all the others, would be illustrated by map, plan, and model of the district taught. Here the teacher and children might use the dip-arrows I have spoken of in their maps for illustrating the contour of the district. In the county of Glamorgan, object lessons on coal, tin, copper, and the manufactures dependent thereon, would probably be taken. This local geography would be illustrated, as far as possible, by sketches on the blackboard, photographs, etc. From the county we should radiate out to the geography of our own land with the necessary model,



plan, and map. But, before we leave the home for the wider world outside, it will be necessary for us to decide whether we shall take, as our areas of investigation, artificial divisions such as, say, the six northern counties of Wales, or a natural division, such as the watershed of the Severn or the Dee. Whichever plan we adopt, we can apply the principle of the type. In discussing the North Wales coal-field our basis of reference will be the South Wales coal-field. We shall get our scholars to see the differences between that coal-field and the typical one—that of South Wales. Again the child's knowledge of the Snowdon range will be built upon his knowledge of the mountains of Glamorgan—the school district.

Finally, in selecting our material for presentation, we must beware of overloading the memory with details, exact heights of mountains, lengths of rivers, populations of cities, etc., so that the child will be unable "to see the forest for the trees," and his interest be effectually smothered. It is the characteristic facts that are of importance and value, not those details which we all of us in after life seek for, not in the lumber-room of the memory, but in the encyclopædia or gazetteer.

You will find that your own reading of books of travels, your own holiday journeys, will be supremely useful in vivifying your teaching. I remember a German teacher telling me that when England, Scotland, or Ireland forms the subject of the geography lesson, his boys appear to take a much keener interest than when, say, Russia or Spain was the subject. "You see," said he, "I have lived in England, Scotland, and Ireland, and I tell them what I actually saw, and so it comes home to them, and they realise that it is not mere text book information."

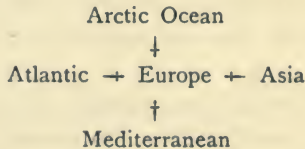
For this paper I have drawn upon

1. Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1892-3, Vol. I., p. 279.
2. "European Schools," by Dr. Klemm (Appleton).
3. "The Teaching of Geography in Switzerland and North Italy," by Miss J. B. Reynolds (Clay).

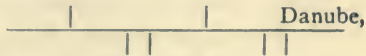
## APPENDIX

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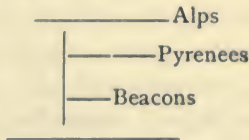
The late Prof. Goodison, U.S.A., suggested that map drawing may be preceded by diagrams which summarise the present position of the child's knowledge, *e.g.*



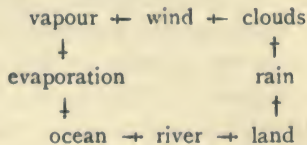
and a river and its tributaries may be drawn thus



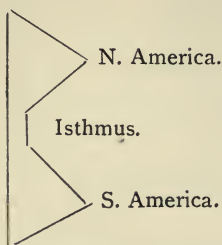
and mountains of varying heights thus



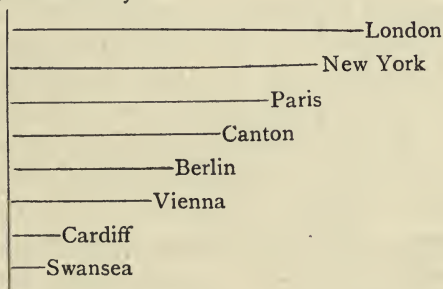
and the circulation of water thus



or before completing America we might summarise our knowledge in this way :



The population of some of the great cities of the world may be shown diagrammatically :—



The twelve Prussian Provinces, with their relative positions will be readily recalled if presented as a diagram thus :—

	Schleswig Holstein	Pomer- ania	West Prussia	East Prussia
West- phalia	Hanover	Brand- enburg	Posen	
Rhine- land	Hesse- Nassau	Saxony	Silesia	

## THE PESSIMIST IN EDUCATION.

“In England the bias of anti-patriotism does not diminish in a marked way the admiration we have for our political institutions, but only here and there prompts the wish for a strong government, to secure the envied benefits ascribed to strong governments abroad. Nor does it appreciably modify the general attachment to our religious institutions ; but only in a few who dislike independence shows itself in advocacy of an authoritative ecclesiastical system fitted to remedy what they lament as a chaos of religious beliefs. In other directions however it is displayed so frequently and conspicuously as to affect public opinion in an injurious way.

“In respect to the higher orders of intellectual achievement undervaluation of ourselves has become a fashion and the errors it fosters re-act detrimentally on the estimates we make of our social regime and on our sociological beliefs in general.” (Spencer)

The Anglo-Saxon is a long suffering individual. He listens with stolid equanimity to the critic who tells him his genius is Scotch, his warriors Irish, and his literature Celtic.

He acquiesces, too, in the sweeping criticisms of his army and its officers, does not dissent too vigorously even when the efficiency of his navy is impugned, and

accepts with resignation the statement that his system of training his children is utterly defective and inefficient.

There is doubtless some ground for this criticism and the motives of it are often beyond cavil. To much of this criticism no exception can be taken, and I for one will not quarrel with the motives of the critic. National self-satisfaction is more dangerous in matters educational than even in matters military.

Nevertheless a certain extravagance of statement, a lack of judicial balance is often noticeable and justifies the uncompromising attitude that educational Conservatives adopt.

Moreover this persistent criticism, this constant depreciation, is apt to defeat its purpose by developing on the part of the public an indifference fatal to all reform.

The cause of English education, we may imagine, is already lost, and, were matters as bad as we are told, then the resigned attitude of our people to educational matters is readily explicable. Instead of this somewhat indiscriminate depreciation, would it not be wiser to find out, not how far we are from the ideal, but how far we are from the attainable? In other words how far we are behind what our rivals have shown us it is possible to do, under similar circumstances.

Year after year the croak of the educational pessimist has been heard in the land, and has, I believe, blunted the sensibilities of our people to the legitimate claims of training.

The chief objection to this constant croaking is that many people, knowing but little of the matter, really begin to think there is a great deal in it. Indeed, I fear many good folk have already accepted the situation as lost and their sole hope appears to be to turn our schools into work-shops, our children into carpenters and our

teachers into artisans. Thus shall we save our immortal souls by means of what *they* call manual training. Many people believe that English national education is in a thoroughly bad state, the schools badly housed, children overworked in school, and at home underfed and scantily clothed, the victims of parental cupidity; our teachers sometimes ignorant, often ill-trained or not trained at all, badly paid, subject to the arbitrary whims of an unsympathetic and unskilled inspectorate, and to the tyranny of an ignorant and bigoted board of managers, and finally the whole controlled by a retrograde and bureaucratic central authority. Such is the picture occasionally placed before the British Public, outlined by suggestion and shaded by inuendo. What I propose to do is to examine this picture and the real picture, and from an examination of other pictures to find out how far the real picture falls away, not from the ideal, but from the practicable.

It must not be forgotten that in education, as in morals and politics, ideals are never realised. We all of us have occasional dreams of beautiful school buildings, of benevolent managers and heaven-sent teachers. Dreams are doubtless good for all. They lift us, for a moment though it be, from the contaminating mud of mundane matters, and paint faint halos round our brows which, though momentary, leave a slowly fading fluorescence and sweet aroma pleasant to look upon and stimulating to inhale.

But as mere humans and not angels we must recognise the limitations of our efforts, and those limitations may for the nonce reasonably be placed at the achievements of our rivals.

So that instead of comparing our schools, teachers and children, with those beautiful pictures we sometimes

dream, we should compare them with the actual pictures our rivals can show us. There is one aspect of our primary education which has recently attracted a considerable amount of attention, and let me add rightly so too. I refer to the irregular attendance of children at school. This irregular attendance looked at purely from the theoretical point of view is simply appalling, and is one of the very worst forms of national waste which we as a people are guilty of. Just think that every day that the English and Welsh schools open, there are one million children absent from school, or, to put it in another way, there are many more children absent from school every day here in England in this twentieth century than there were children absent from school in the days of Queen Elizabeth. I commend the last statement to our good friend the pessimist.

In London too there are as many children absent from school every day as there are people living in Swansea. In many parts of Wales the number of children daily present in school is between 60 and 70 per cent. of the total, so that we shall agree in admitting that it is difficult to overstate the case of bad attendance. But that, after all, is not a judicial attitude to take up. We must control our criticism by an examination of the possibilities of the situation. The question then becomes not what the attendance should be but what it can be. What are our rivals able to do in this matter?

France and Germany are generally hurled at our heads as examples of what may be done in securing good attendance.

But to this it must at once be objected that the basis of comparison between intensely bureaucratic states, such as France and Germany are, and such a land as England where local administration and control was first dis-

covered and is most luxuriantly developed, is utterly lacking.

The citizen of France or Germany has been reared under a highly centralised system of government.

France is indeed termed a republic, but as has been well said "the principles upon which the French republic is professedly founded are the legacy of the Revolution, but it employs in their application instruments created by Napoleon and intended to serve the purposes of an imperial will."

The German, like the Frenchman, has been trained to listen to the voice of the State as the word of the Almighty, and it would occur to him to disobey the voice of the State just as readily as it would occur to an Englishman to question the efficiency of the British Constitution. Moreover Germany is enjoying the fruits of over a century of compulsory education; we are beginning to reap the first fruits of 1870. Further it must not be overlooked that children have as a rule further to walk to school in England and Wales than either in Germany or France. In France practically every commune has a school, in Germany only 1 child out of every 25 walks more than  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles to school. The German and French peasantry herd together much more than ours do. The single cottage and farm are almost unknown. The rural community live in the village and walk out daily to the fields, so that the homes are clustered round the school and the church. In America there is one school to every 300 of the population, in France there is one to every 450 of the population, in Germany there is one school to every 874 inhabitants, in England one school to every 1,550 inhabitants.

What are the actual figures of school attendance in these various countries?



In Germany no such exact records as our schools keep are kept, for no grant depends upon the attendance of the children. The missing ones, however, are noted for the purpose of reporting their absence to the police. The official figures of attendance in German schools is generally given as 90 per cent. of the children enrolled. I think that is about correct, higher figures are only possible in states where children never get the measles and don't catch colds. The only children enrolled in German schools are those between 6 and 13 years of age in the country and between 6 and 14 years of age in the town. In England and Wales the attendance of children of a comparable age (*i.e.* over 7) is  $87\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.\* In France, the attendance is not, I believe, so good as most of us are inclined to imagine. No such registers as ours are kept in the French school but twice a year only, once in summer and once in the winter all the children present in every French school on that date are counted and compared with the total enrolled. These are the figures:—

Schools	Dec. 7, 1891	June 7, 1892	Dec. 7, 1886	June 7, 1887†
Public	78.6 per cent.	71.9 per cent.	80.1 per cent.	72.0 per cent.
Private	86.5 do.	84.9 do.	87.9 do.	86.6 do.

These figures prove that whereas our attendance is slowly improving that of France is deteriorating.

The school age of French children is, as you are aware, from 6 to 13 years of age, so that the above

\* The method which until recently was adopted by the Board of Education for ascertaining this figure, was not mathematically justifiable, but for the purpose of obtaining an average number was not unsatisfactory.

† There appears to be some doubt as to the accuracy of these figures, but such a method of testing the attendance does not lend itself to accuracy. I have seen figures as high as 88 and 90 per cent. quoted but not the authority. The above figures are given in the Report of U.S. Commissioner for 1893-94. Vol. I.

figures hardly justify the extravagant eulogiums of French regularity as compared with English. There can be no doubt I think that in rural France the attendance is but little better than in rural England, the School Attendance Committee in France which meets but once in three months as a rule, it is well known, is extremely lax in enforcing the compulsory law: out of over 40,000 infringements of the law in one year only some 600 cases ended in actual prosecution,—indeed a child may be absent four times during a month without any notice being taken of such absence.\* It should be emphasized that the rigid registration of the English school is unknown in the French, German or American school and therefore the figures of attendance in England possess an accuracy to which the other figures cannot lay claim. Indeed very legitimate objection may be taken to the official figures put forward for both French and German schools.

But to obtain a really fair comparison for our English schools we should take a democratic locally controlled system of education such as ours is, and ascertain the success of efforts to get the children into school in such a case. Any of the British Colonies would suffice, but we have recently heard so much of the American system of training that it will interest us more if we take the schools of the United States for comparison.

Here are the bald facts. The French, German and English primary schools are open on an average at least

\* The reason for the poor attendance of the French rural school, besides the non-enforcement of the laws, may be perhaps gathered from these extracts from French Inspectors' reports. "Well managed schools are always full;" The value of the school is the value of the master; attendance is regular only with good teachers." "With few exceptions absences are frequent only in poor schools; there is no lack of pupils in good schools."

200 days every year. The average American school is open for only 143.3 days, and during the days the schools are open the average attendance is 68 per cent. Of course the length of the school year varies in different parts of the States from 191 days in Rhode Island to 69 days in Arkansas, but I have given you the average for the whole of the States.

The result is that the average American child gets quite two years less of school training than does the English, French or German child. It is only fair to point out that in such comparisons the immense area tells against America.

Herewith I attach the figures for various countries of the world showing the percentage ratio of the average attendance to the number of children enrolled on the school books. These figures are taken from Vol. II. of the U.S. Commissioner's Report for 1898-9.

	Per cent	Date	Ratio of No. of children enrolled to population
Austria Hungary . . . . .	87½	1897	15.0
Germany . . . . .	90	1896	18.0
Switzerland . . . . .	88.2	1898	20.7
Bombay . . . . .	78.9	1898	2.95
Japan . . . . .	79.44	1897	9.31
Cape of Good Hope . . . . .	77.35	1898	8.89
British Columbia . . . . .	63.29	1896	16.09
Manitoba . . . . .	61.11	1896	24.96
New Brunswick . . . . .	55.7	1898	19.77
Nova Scotia . . . . .	54.46	1897	22.39
Ontario . . . . .	56.34	1897	20.86
Prince Edward Island . . . . .	60.58	1896	20.29
Quebec . . . . .	70.60	1896	13.30
Mexico . . . . .	67.04	1897	4.63
Cuba . . . . .	63.87	1899	5.41

	Per cent.	Date.	Ratio of No. of children enrolled to population.
Costa Rica . . . . .	82.83	1897	9.01
Argentine . . . . .	80.75	1898	6.22
Chili . . . . .	65.69	1898	3.68
Peru . . . . .	70.88	1897	1.21
New South Wales . . .	65.6	1897	17.24
Queensland . . . . .	68.5	1899	21.78
South Australia . . . .	60.9	1899	19.15
Victoria . . . . .	56.72	1898	20.18
West Australia . . . . .	77.64	1899	10.16
New Zealand . . . . .	83.76	1898	18.71
Tasmania . , . . . .	56.31	1899	15.86

So much for school attendance. Let me now direct your attention to another matter, namely, the early age at which our children leave school. The Blue Book shows us that only some 20 per cent of our school children remain in school above Standard Four. There can be no doubt that our children leave school too early and unfortunately at the most critical period of their life when their characters are beginning to be permanently moulded by the good influence of school. No one can regret more than I do the early age at which our children leave school, but again it is necessary to distinguish between what we desire and what we can gain. Is not this early leaving a symptom not of a bad school system but of a bad economic system which compels the parent to eke out a miserable salary, far indeed from a living wage, by the petty earnings of his child? This system of child labour is the most extravagant system in the world. The nation that tolerates it is living not upon its earnings but upon its national capital. Your children are the most permanent and certain national asset you have and, if you

spend that, take my word for it, you are no longer solvent.

In France barely half of the children in the primary schools remain there until they are thirteen.\* An increasing number leave at 11 when they obtain the certificate of primary studies which is merely a sort of glorified labour examination. In Germany, children may be excused attending school if their parents plead poverty, though to their honour be it said, that is not often done. † The German parent has, I believe, a keen sense of his duty towards his child. In Posen however the power of the landlords is so strong that the legislature has been compelled to legalise the employment of children of school age as shepherds.

In America, an observer writes that 50 per cent. of the children leave school before they are ten years of age and of boys even a greater percentage. The reports of State Superintendents, too, afford full evidence of this fact. Over and over again they bewail the early withdrawal of children from school. One Superintendent assures us that the average age of the children in the schools is between 8 and 9 years old. The American boy, precocious and assertive as he is, objects to being taught by a school ma'am when he has obtained the mature age of ten.

There is another matter that has received much

\* Many are withdrawn on the score of poverty, and others for the purposes of agriculture.

† In Berlin, 1,900 pupils of the elementary schools were in 1891 definitely excused from school at the close of the seventh year (at 13 years of age) owing to the poverty of the parents who needed their children's aid. In 50 families it was conclusively shown the misery was so great that the children had to be excused at 12 years of age.

attention in the past, though I am glad to think that the need for such attention is rapidly disappearing in England. I refer to the half-timer. In Wales, as you know, this is an extinct species. I can remember a few specimens as a lad a quarter of a century ago. At present there are 67 in all Wales.

There are about 100,000 half-timers still left of which 56.8 per cent are in Lancashire alone.

In other countries, the factory half-timer does not flourish as in England, largely because the factory system is not so fully developed,\* but the agricultural half-timer is a very widely scattered species. In Germany there are over 600,000 of them. In France, too, they are not rare † and in rural America the fact that the school is only open for 3 or 4 months every year is fairly conclusive evidence of how numerous a certain modification of the species is in America. The Commissioner for the State of Georgia in 1896 writes that he calculates that 250,000 children of school age in that State do not attend school. The greater part are in rural districts where a majority of the children labour on the farm. Besides, as he says "the school houses in the country are so uncomfortable that the schools must be held in the Spring and Summer."

One is apt to overlook such facts when visiting the big city schools. We forget the back-woods when in

\* In Berlin there are factory half timers as well as ordinary half day schools organised to meet the deficiency of school places.

† Official regulations have been issued for the organization when necessary of half-time schools, and a French Minister of Education ordered that the departmental educational authority should arrange the school hours in summer so that a portion of the children's time might be utilised at home and so prevent the withdrawal of them by parents in summer time.

New York. Out of 3,232 schools which the State of California possessed in 1892 no less than 3,121 were built of wood, and even in New York State only 1,900 schools out of 12,000 were built of stone or brick.

These facts, I think, justify my argument that on the whole the difficulties of English education are neither different in quantity or kind from those of other countries, and you know it does help one along the weary and heavy road of duty to see the footmarks which other wanderers along the same road have made.

One is apt sometimes to despair of the future of our land when one thinks of the difficulties facing our rural schools, for without an efficient system of rural education no country is safe.

How rarely is the rural school popular! It is simply tolerated, rarely loved. But even in this it is perhaps some slight satisfaction to observe that the rural school is no better loved abroad. It has the same difficulties to face, lack of funds, weak staff, and the competition of the land for the child.

Let us listen to M. Guizot, the great French Minister of Education, speaking of the task of the rural teacher: "However sir, as I well know, the foresight of the law and the resources at the disposal of public authority will never succeed in rendering the humble profession of a communal teacher as attractive as it is useful. Society could not reward him who devotes himself to this service for all that he does for it. There is no fortune to gain; there is scarcely any reputation to acquire in the difficult duties which he performs. Destined to see his life spent in a monotonous occupation, sometimes even to encounter about him the injustice and the ingratitude of ignorance, he would often grow disheartened and would perhaps succumb, did he not draw his strength and his courage

from other sources than the prospect of an interest immediate and purely personal. It is necessary that a profound sense of the moral importance of his work sustain and animate him, and that the austere pleasure of having served men and secretly contributed to the public good become the noble reward which his conscience alone can give. It is his glory to aim at nothing beyond his obscure and laborious condition, to spend himself in sacrifices scarcely counted by those who profit by them, and, in a word, to work for men and to look for his reward only from God." Such a noble appreciation as this is should be heard in every land where rural teachers live and labour, for no man needs the comforting words and the helping hand more than the rural teacher.

You know we are all apt to place ourselves upon one pedestal and the remainder of the universe upon another. I remember a German rural teacher telling me how he envied the life of the English rural teacher, with no priest to worry him nor sectarian prejudices to fight. He thought all English schools were undenominational, and he evidently had formed a somewhat roseate opinion of English rural school life.

The German rural teacher has several advantages but he has also disadvantages as compared with his English confrère. His managers are often the local squires and farmers, and they are allowed to fix the hours when school is to open. They do so, sometimes fixing it as early as 5 or 6 a. m. and closing at 9 or 10 a. m., so that for the remainder of the day the children may be free for farm work. Another interesting duty of many a rural German teacher is to collect his own salary, which comes occasionally from as many as 10 to 18 different sources. Some of us know the difficulty of obtaining money from one source, what then of 18? Then again



extraneous duties are exceedingly common in Germany, both those of organist and sacristan. Moreover the local pastor or priest is also the local school inspector, a combination by no means happy in the eyes of the German teacher. But these are minor difficulties; the real difficulty of the German rural school is the lack of funds and therefore of sufficient accommodation and staff. The normal type of rural school in Saxony and many other parts of Germany is the half day school, in most cases simply because there is no room and no staff for all the children. Here are some remarkable cases of understaffing in Posen.

Locality.	Classes.	Pupils.
Palmnicken . . . . .	2 . . . . .	293
Astrawischken . . . . .	1 . . . . .	171
Mechlin . . . . .	1 . . . . .	173
Punitz . . . . .	1 . . . . .	175
Sakran Turawa. . . . .	1 . . . . .	171
Petersdorf. . . . .	4 . . . . .	808
Alstaden . . . . .	1 . . . . .	172

Even in Rhenish Prussia I found a school of over 90 children varying in age from 6 to 13 all in charge of one teacher. In 1896 there were in Prussia 92,001 full sized elementary classes but only 78,431 class rooms for them. The remaining 13,570 had either to share a classroom with another class or attend half-day.

Here is a summarised statement of the actual condition of things in Prussian schools to-day. To give every class in Prussian schools a teacher of its own and to reduce each class to the normal size of 70 or 80 children to one teacher would necessitate at the present moment the appointment of 20,000 more teachers. That is the extent of the understaffing in Prussian schools. In

many parts of France there is of course understaffing, but on the whole one must admit that in this respect, at any rate, our French neighbours show an admirable example to their rivals.\* In Prussia with a population of thirty-two million there are 78,959 teachers; in France with a population of 38½ millions there are 151,563 teachers; in England and Wales with a population of 31 millions there are 62,085 certificated (or provisionally certified) teachers. To this number should be added 30,000 assistant teachers qualified under Article 50 of the Code, for it should be pointed out that 20 per cent of the French teachers possess only a somewhat similar *academic* qualification. These are the young teachers who, having passed the *brevet élémentaire* but have not been trained, are appointed on probation by the Inspector.†

\* In France there are 102,486 teachers for 100,815 classes. Of all French classes 88·9 per cent had less than 50 and on the other hand one per cent had more than 70 children to one teacher, and a class of over a hundred children to one teacher is not unknown even in France.

† Indeed the vast majority of French teachers do hold a State certificate, but it is only the *brevet élémentaire*, which may be passed at 16 and of which the "oral and written tests should not in any case go beyond the mean of the courses of study of the highest class in the primary schools." This examination is one of the conditions preceding entrance to the Training College.

The qualifications of all French teachers in the year 1896 were :—

Brevet Élémentaire.	Brevet Supérieur.	No Diploma
107,083	34,377	9,931

The teachers with no diploma generally hold the Baccalaureate of the University of France which, however, it should be remembered, is hardly the equivalent of the Bachelor's degree of an English university.

Thus we see that nearly 70 per cent of all French certificated

Many wrong impressions exist, I think, as to American education; in some respects the American schools are, I believe, leading the world, but, on the other hand, there can be no doubt that there is a lack of solidarity, so to speak, about American education. The goods for sale are in the window of the shop, whereas in Germany and Switzerland, the leading pedagogic centres of the world, the best goods are in the back, and the best work done is often that of the country schools. The American country school is generally a wooden building, opened for a few months each year, and the teacher of one year will probably not be the teacher of the next. Young girls anxious to get to college keep school in this way and so earn the wherewithal to satisfy their ambition.

Many of these young women, so far as I can understand, have qualifications just as interesting as our\*

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teachers hold only the inferior diploma, though the majority of these have been through a Training College and failed to pass the final examination or *brevet supérieur*. This failure does not incapacitate them from becoming teachers.

\* The State Superintendent for Pennsylvania thus writes in 1893: "In too many districts the directors have yielded to the temptation to reduce the tax rate to less than a mill, and to run the schools on a cheap plan by hiring cheap teachers. The statistics on this point are startling indeed. The total number of college graduates employed in the public schools is 284. The graduates of State normal schools, academies and seminaries who teach in the public schools is 7,064. Hence 17,991 teachers have never enjoyed the advantage of a full course of study beyond the public schools. Some of these by private study and by partial courses at normal and other schools have risen to the rank of those holding professional and permanent certificates, but the startling fact remains that over half of the teachers of Pennsylvania (12,975) hold the provisional certificate, and almost a myriad of them (8,979) never had any

much despised Article 68. Indeed I have heard of one American teacher being only 15 years of age and therefore ineligible for approval under that much abused Article. Our Article 68 has been compared to an animated broomstick. But really it would seem at present that this class of teacher is the only alternative to the appalling understaffing of the German school or the meagre salary of the French and German rural school teacher. Under present financial conditions the country school cannot be worked without the help of either monitor or Article 68.\* In Germany the master often avails himself of the service of a monitor and trains this lad up to be ultimately a teacher. One of the leaders of German pedagogy and a country teacher

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training outside of the common schools. The provisional certificate carries on its face the evidence that the holder's qualifications are not up to the standard in all the branches to be taught and especially not in the theory and practice of teaching. Nor can it be expected that poor human nature shall exemplify all the virtues of the educational decalogue at salaries varying from 12 dollars to 25 dollars per month. Some future historian will record it as the marvel of the ages that in the closing decade of the nineteenth century many parents were willing in the rich commonwealth of Pennsylvania to intrust the education of their children into the hands of persons whose services were not considered worth the wages of a common day labourer." "If the schools exist only for the employment of teachers then it may be right to appoint the daughter of a citizen for the reason that he is a taxpayer, or a cripple, because he has no other means of earning a livelihood, or a fellow who gets periodically intoxicated, because in this way his relatives can most easily help him and his to bread."

\* It is more money the rural school needs all over the world. "These country schools" writes a State Superintendent "are inadequate, many of them inferior, some of them almost worthless and it is impossible to improve them to any appreciable extent

to boot has recently strongly advocated the introduction of the English pupil teacher system into the German rural school. Then in France, as I have already pointed out, many of the teachers are not fully qualified; and in America Dr. W. T. Harris, their greatest authority, has strongly advocated the introduction of the Lancasterian system into the American rural school.\* So that after all the English monitorial system has its friends even in America and Germany. Even in Chicago itself you will find a similar system flourishing though there the teachers are called by a prettier name and are employed all day not half day in the schools.

As a matter of fact any system of training which involves small classes, such as the country school and the

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without more money. It is needless to try to shut our eyes to this fact. All efforts of school officers to improve them must continue to be fruitless without more money. There is perhaps nothing in the State to be more regretted than the insufficiency of the country schools. The money spent annually in the maintenance of these schools is proportionately small. The amount does not exceed two and a half dollars for each pupil in attendance on them including the graded schools of the State. The graded schools run about nine months to the year while the country schools will not average more than three. This is a burning shame and a cruel wrong to the boys and girls of the State who live in the country and are limited principally to the country schools for their education."

\* "I think that the answer to this (the difficulty of the ungraded school) may be found in the adoption of some form of the Lancasterian or monitorial system—using it sparingly and under careful supervision. The more advanced pupils may be set to instruct the backward ones to a certain limited degree. However this must not be attempted except by teachers who are skilful and full of resources. Otherwise the process or method will fall into the same ruts that the old time system fell into. We do not wish to restore the pupil teacher system nor see a too extensive use of the monitorial system. But invention has not been exhausted along this

Kindergarten (and one would like to add, all schools), can only be worked under present financial conditions by employing unqualified teachers. The ideal and the practical again lie far apart.\*

I was reading the other day an account by an observer of a school he had visited in South Germany.

The article wound up by a report of a short conversation with the head and other teachers, in which the German teachers volunteered information as to the status and salaries they enjoyed. These salaries would have been high even in England. I have also seen American salaries of £300 to £700 quoted. Of course such salaries no doubt are obtained in America, and occasionally in Germany, just as they are in England, but such are by no means an average salary in any one country. In the matter of buildings again our best Board Schools, are, I doubt not, comparable in every respect to the best schools anywhere else in the world. On the other hand, England has no monopoly in poor school buildings.

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line. There is unlimited opportunity for devices which shall employ the bright pupils in making easy steps for the backward pupils and in testing their progress. We have seen the evils of the Lancasterian system in filling the ranks with poor teachers. The modified Lancasterian system, which I believe useful in ungraded schools, and to take the place of the mischievous system of partial grading in many village schools demands before all that the teacher shall be better than ordinary. The mere routine teacher will not serve the purpose, nor have we any use for the apprentice teacher or the half cultured teacher of any kind." And elsewhere he says :

"In my opinion we have something to learn from this monitorial system. The Kindergarten and the ungraded school in rural districts can it seems to me adopt a form of the Lancasterian system which would serve a good purpose."

\* Here is an extract from an official report on some rural schools

However, be the quality what it may, in this matter quantity is essential. In England there are more than sufficient school places for all children of school age. In Germany the half-day school is organised to meet the deficiency of school accommodation. So far as I know, there is no English town or city which, owing to inadequate school accommodation, has had to do what the cities of Berlin and New York have both had to do—that is, resort to the half-day school so as to avoid their future citizens being absolutely destitute of a school education. But for America the figures are appalling. (See page 34).

That peculiar mental twist called bigotry or narrow-mindedness is not confined to the British Isles, and one must not imagine that the religious difficulty of which we hear so much and see so little is peculiar to our land.

The religious difficulty is felt just as keenly in France, Germany or America as in England.

In Germany practically every primary school is a denominational school. Religious instruction is compulsory

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of Connecticut: "Coming now to the description of the work of the teachers of the ten ungraded schools, we find it said of only one that her work was fair; that one is a graduate of a Massachusetts normal school. All the rest were 'hearing lessons,' they were not 'teaching.' Two were waiting with a sweet patience for the children to learn their lessons, one was absent 'necessarily,' taking examinations, it was reported, in a professional school while his younger brother, a boy about 17, was going through the routine. To several classes, which read perfunctorily from texts in history or physiology, no instruction was given either on the subject-matter or on the reading, except possibly the mis-pronunciation of a word; in only one or two instances was there shown ability to express thought with a pen; the penmanship, as has already been said, averaged very low; the air was stifling; the outhouses would better be left undescribed."

and, as a rule, the school is either Protestant, Catholic or Jewish. The fact that so many German Protestants are Lutherans saves the situation from becoming intolerable, though to Free Churchmen and Agnostics it is all that. The priest or pastor is both correspondent and inspector, and exercises a predominating influence over the school which is often strongly resented by the teacher. In France all public schools are secular, and no dogmatic religion is allowed. Nevertheless, the loyalty of the French Catholic to Mother Church is so keen that to him these secular State schools are impossible, and so, side by side, competing more than successfully with the public schools is the system of private Catholic schools, receiving no help whatever from the State, inspected by State officers, and actually training to-day one quarter of all the school children of France.\* The church secondary schools, too, unaided by the State, are increasing rapidly at the expense of the lyc ee, the State secondary school.

France is even to-day strongly Catholic, and the recuperative powers of the Church have often before been demonstrated, so that this growth of Church Schools is by no means inexplicable. But how explain the still more noteworthy fact that in the United States a similar set of facts confronts us? There you have not so much the Catholic community, though they are doing much, but the great German and Scandinavian Lutheran community of the States maintaining schools in which dog-

\* The State primary schools of France had of the total enrolment in—

	Per Cent.
1881-2 . . . . .	81.6
1886-7 . . . . .	80.4
1891-2 . . . . .	76.8



matic religious teaching is taught, and in opposition to the public secular common schools. The Commissioner of Education estimates that 15 per cent. of all the children of school age are enrolled in these schools.

Thus you see our religious difficulty is in no sense peculiar, nor does it appear that the inauguration of universal secular schools solves the difficulty.

Finally, let me say something as to the teachers. Only thirteen per cent. of the German teachers are women, fifty-five of the French are women, sixty-six of the English, and sixty-nine of the American teachers are women.

The salary of the average American male teacher is £109 per annum, and of the average English male teacher £125 per annum, and of the average German male teacher (in 1896) £77 per annum. The American woman teacher gets on an average a salary of £93 per annum, the English woman teacher gets £84 per annum, and the German woman teacher £61. In other words the female teacher in America gets eighty-six per cent., in Prussia eighty per cent., and in England sixty-seven per cent., of the salary of the male teacher. The smaller difference in America is probably due to the relatively higher efficiency of the bulk of the female as compared with the bulk of the male teachers.

Other points must be borne in mind, such as the shorter time during which the school is open in America, the varying value of money, the absence of pensions in America, and the fact that French, English, and German teachers are entitled to such. There is no security of tenure in America: complete security in France and Germany. Further, all rural schools in Germany possess a school house and garden, and often other land is allocated to the use of the schoolmaster, as well as firing,

so that including these the salaries of German teachers are—

	City.	Country.
Males . . . . .	£96 . . . . .	£64 . . . . .
Females . . . . .	£66 . . . . .	£54 . . . . .

Teaching is a popular profession as is shown by the fact that one-fifth of all German teachers are sons of teachers.

In France the schoolmaster's salary is low, but improving.\* A country school-master earning a salary of £60 per annum would consider himself very well off, especially as he would be ex-officio the mayor's secretary for which duty he would secure another £20 per annum.

The status of both German and French teachers is relatively high, and second only to the clergyman's in the one case and the mayor's in the other.

Their status is certainly higher than that of the rural English or American teacher.

The German teacher is pedagogically the finest trained teacher in the world, indeed, in my opinion, he is over-trained. The incubus of educational tradition is heavy upon him; so impressed has he been by the Credos of

\* The primary teachers of France are divided into five classes according to experience and qualifications, and the salaries paid by the State are—

	Men	Women
Fifth Class . . . . .	£40 . . . . .	£40 . . . . .
Fourth Class . . . . .	£48 . . . . .	£48 . . . . .
Third Class . . . . .	£60 . . . . .	£56 . . . . .
Second Class . . . . .	£72 . . . . .	£60 . . . . .
First Class . . . . .	£80 . . . . .	£64 . . . . .

If in charge of a school of three or four classes the teacher gets an additional £8, and if the school has four or more classes then £16 additional salary is granted. The pay of "assistants" is £32 per annum. French teachers are also allowed lodging money in addition to the above. Small additions are sometimes made by the community to these sums.

the profession that his self resource and reliance have been seriously warped, and this attitude is reflected in his pupils. There is a lack of spontaneity and variety in the German school. The children are rarely trained to resourcefulness and independence, and the result is that when they leave school they are helpless and rapidly deteriorate into the indifference of an uneducated class. There is, I admit, something singularly impressive in the high uniformity of German life but, at the same time, it has grave defects, and though this great wave of German nationalism by its very momentum overwhelms obstacles yet it lacks those eddies and ripples that give life and character to the stream.

“It would seem” says an American writer “that Germany is the pedagogic nation, the educator of the world, not only in schools but in the organisation of armies, the conduct of wars, also in the development of manufactures, the division of labour, among its people and in the building up of a commerce.” Whereas of England he says “England is the classical land of historical reforms, of vigorous individuality, of creative associations, of self government and self administration, the land of practical purposes.”\*

\* Prof. Weber of Steglitz thus sums up his experience of our higher school. “The English system cares little about the acquirement of manifold knowledge by the pupils, and the scientific treatment of the subjects, but it tries before all to fulfil two tasks. Firstly to develop the physique of the pupil, to make him in all respects healthy and capable of resistance and to harden him against physical and moral injury. This having been accomplished, the teacher’s aim is to develop in the vigorous body an independent firm character ; he will accustom the boys to absolute truth, candour and resoluteness ; they must quickly and independently find the right thing and learn to execute. In a word the English master educates ; the German rather instructs.”

In the French school the same uniformity without, perhaps, the fine spirit of the German schools is observed. There is practically no difference in curriculum or organisation between one school and another in France. The French people it has been said cannot work without a programme and so there results a singular uniformity in French schools.

One third of all German teachers come from the farming class. They are trained in small provincial towns and their rural sympathies and tastes are fully developed by their upbringing and training, and they are in close touch with their environment.

In England you know how rarely even to-day this is the case, and, as far as one can see, the country pupil teacher will soon be a thing of the past. Not rarely, indeed, English country teachers are town reared and trained, and they have unwillingly drifted into the country school where they await the turn of the tide to pitch them high and dry into an urban school.

Our Training College accommodation is, as you know, very inadequate, whereas in both France and Germany the supply of trained teachers meets the demand, so that whereas in England only fifty-eight per cent. of our certificated teachers are trained in France and Germany they are nearly all trained.

Of American teachers only one-sixth of the demand can annually be supplied by the Training Colleges. Generally the women teachers are more often trained than the men. The American ~~female~~<sup>WOMAN</sup> teacher flourishes in the progressive States, *e.g.*, in Chicago only six per cent. of the teachers are males, and in New York city only eight per cent. This preponderance of female teachers has been said to produce a lack of virility and strength in the discipline of the schools, and it is given as the

main reason for the early age at which boys leave school. The greatest variety possible exists amongst American teachers. Only a small proportion are in any sense trained, and the Training College accommodation, such as it is, is very inadequate. The courses of these normal schools vary enormously, some of them are true normal schools with a two or four years' course, but many of them are simply secondary schools where lectures on teaching may sometimes be heard. These give their pupils diplomas to teach, which may or may not be accepted by the various School Boards. The vast majority of American school teachers are untrained, and their qualifications vague and various. In many States more than half the teachers have received nothing more than a primary school training. In New York State, out of 33,000 teachers only 1,115 teachers hold the State Superintendent's certificate, and 4,000 hold a normal school certificate, the remainder are licensed by the officers of the local School Boards.\*

Teachers, like School Superintendents, have in the past been appointed on a political ticket rather than on a pedagogical certificate.

The Superintendent of American schools is not always the expert some of us imagine he is.

\* The State Superintendent for New York writes :—

“ If the American school system is to successfully cope with the circumstances which confront it, and the still more trying circumstances which will confront it, it must be equipped with a more substantial teaching service. Perhaps one teacher in five or one in four is a professional. The force is too largely constituted of young girls, or persons who are unable to prosecute any other employment successfully. Two-thirds of the number who are now teaching will have ceased to teach in five years. Four-fifths of the newcomers are immature, physically and mentally, and are inadequately prepared for such a trust.”

It is the opinion of American educators themselves that there is no real profession of teaching in America, and that until such a profession is established matters educational will not be satisfactory.\* Whereas in Germany and France, the professional life of a teacher is about twenty-five years, in America it is not five years. In fact, teaching is taken up by many young American men and women simply as a stepping stone to higher things. An American writer states that "a preparation in pedagogics for the profession is almost entirely wanting; in fact the principle has been enunciated that a teacher in the public schools need not know more than he must teach, and that a knowledge of his text book is sufficient." Further on, the same critic observes: "The office of teacher in the average American school is perhaps the only one in the world that can be retained indefinitely in spite of the grossest negligence and incompetency."

This judgment is, probably, of too sweeping a character, and the truth doubtless lies somewhere between this pessimistic view, and the highly optimistic view of American education which some of us have. The statis-

\* "A large majority of the teachers, especially in the common school districts, enter upon the work of teaching as a temporary makeshift, and consequently lack that interest and enthusiasm that would obtain if they intended to follow teaching as a permanent occupation. The idea is prevalent in many places that teaching is the only business that requires no antecedent preparation or experience. Hence any ignoramus, equally ignorant of pedagogy and law, may be permitted to practice teaching ignorantly, in order that he may get the necessary means for the practice of law intelligently. . . . So long as inferior field hands are recognised as superior teachers, so long will the third-grade class continue to dominate the other classes in number and influence." (State Superintendent of Arkansas, 1893-4.)

tics of American education are a wholesome corrective to the unrestrained enthusiasm engendered by American educational exhibitions.

Besides the short school year, poor attendance, early age of leaving, absence of real profession of teaching, inadequate equipment of teachers, and insufficient school buildings, there is also to be observed in American education that lack of respect for constituted authority and time-tried methods which invariably characterises the unskilled teacher. The average American teacher has no professional conservatism, and hence is peculiarly susceptible to fads and crazes. The New York "Evening Post" thus expressed itself: "The history of education in this country for the past fifty years has been a history of crazes, the method craze, the object lesson craze, the illustration craze, the 'memory gem' craze, the civic craze, calling upon children of eight to ten for information as to custom houses, post offices, city councils governors and legislators, the story-telling craze, the phonics craze, the word method craze, the drawing and music craze, besides the craze for letters and business forms, picture study and physics; now arrives manua training. Happy is the community where those in charge of the schools have maintained their clear judgment above all these fluctuations, shiftings, and tinkering, and have kept in view the real object of school education."

I have heard a German educator speak of what he called English fads, such as manual training, physical education, Kindergarten training, and the heuristic method, in much the same strain. I did not agree with him, but is it not indeed time that the curriculum of the school should be made absolutely independent of any transitory fluctuations in public opinion? As Alfred

Fouillée put it: "Blunders are worst in education because whole generations are compromised."

The only bulwark against such experiments, such possible blunders, is the existence in the schools of a corps of professional men and women. Until England and America possess such a corps as Germany and France possess, their school will always be at the mercy of the crank and faddist. It is characteristic of the amateur in education to imagine that reform of curricula involves improvement in the schools, whereas the only permanent reform in a school system is that consequent upon more adequate financial resources and a more thorough professional training of the teacher. The introduction of this or that element into the curriculum, without a corresponding increase in the professional efficiency of the teacher, is certain to produce not greater order but chaos in the school. Over and over again the American school curriculum has been extended or remodelled without a thought as to the limits of capability of the teacher, and the results have generally been, and were bound to be, disastrous. American educators themselves have pointed this out.

As a contrast observe how slight are the modifications that have been introduced into the curriculum of the German Volksschule during the last fifty years. There can be no doubt that a reasonable conservatism is characteristic of the good teacher, wherever he be found, and feeling as he does how much is in his keeping, nothing less than the whole future of his country, such an attitude is, I venture to think, natural and rational.\*

\* The "Revue Pédagogique Belge" thus wrote: "For ages the progress of school education was retarded by general indifference; to-day, on the contrary, the most formidable obstruction it encounters is the itch or the passion for innovations. In all countries, mon-



I hope I have not unduly emphasised the weaknesses of foreign education. I am only anxious to bring out the fact that our own troubles are not peculiar.

Finally, let me say that some of the best schools in the world are, I believe, American schools. Their Kindergartens are unrivalled, their drawing and nature study superior in some respects to those of French schools, and finally the whole system of training adopted in the American school develops self-resource, self-reliance, and, above all else, a keen love of education for its own sake. An American never considers he is too old to learn. They are supremely proud of their schools, and they are spending upon them freely, even lavishly. Even their bad attendance has another aspect, as Superintendent Rice of New York long since pointed out: "I doubt the expediency of laws compelling parents and guardians to send their children and wards to the public schools, or to provide education for them at home or at private schools, until the persuasive power of good teachers, commodious and comfortable school houses and free

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archic and democratic, everybody, from emperor to pastry-cook, has upon the subject of education ideas which in his view will regenerate humanity. Naturally the ministers of public instruction have their ideas too, and endeavour to put them into practice. Almost everyone wishes to break away from what he is pleased to call the old usages, that is to say, from the experience of centuries, and to build up the course of study on a new basis. The lack of practical experience causes people to get astride of some of the strangest hobbies. One is wholly engrossed with gymnastics, another with chemistry; this one is inflexibly bent upon teaching anatomy and physiology to future seamstresses; that one is of opinion that the youthful residents of the Rue de Temple will not be able to get along without some well-grounded knowledge of farming."

schools have been tried and tried in vain." \* That is a perfectly reasonable view, though subsequent experience has convinced us that such attractions have but slight effect on a mind with but a weak sense of parental obligation.

In Germany children relapse into an indifference to education that can, I think, only be completely accounted for by the repugnance the compulsory law engenders. It seems almost impossible to find the median line between compulsion and freedom.

Finally, in America, there is a certain public pride in their schools on the part of the American people which is pregnant with promise, and I would that I could see signs of a similar public spirit in our own land.

In bringing before you these facts I have been influenced by what I believe are the highest considerations for English education. I hold that to exaggerate and unduly emphasise the best points of foreign systems of education, and to bring into an unfair pre-eminence the difficulties of home education, is to produce a feeling of despair and ultimately indifference in the best friends of education. A man's soul is saved, not by continually telling him he is a sinner, but by occasionally insinuating that he is a possible saint.

I deplore as much as anyone the many weaknesses of English education, and there is no more ardent pro-

\* And the State Superintendent for Missouri says : " My experience has been that in the districts characterised by liberality towards their schools, non-attendance is reduced to the minimum, and in such communities there is no demand for a compulsory law. The demand for such a law comes from those districts in which the schools are of the least value, the teachers employed are unworthy the position they occupy, the school term just as short and the taxes as low as the law will permit."

gressive in matters educational than I am, but do not let us take up an impossible position. Let us recognise that it is reform, not revolution we want. Reform, step by step, year by year, here a little and there a little, is what we desire. We have had so many glowing pictures of foreign education placed before us recently that I, for one, felt the task before us becoming more and more hopeless. In the glowing colours of the foreground we forgot the shadows in the background. And so I have tried to remind you that there is a background.

National systems of education are not comparable. Some of the most valuable elements in any system are not capable of comparison.

How, for example, can one compare two systems, such as that of Germany and the United States. The one is the perfected engine of a bureaucratic State, moving onward with all the stately majesty of a great river, the other is the somewhat rough weapon forged by a young people, and intended to develop citizens, not soldiers. The spontaneity, variety, and self help of the democratic State is characteristic of the American and not of the German school. Let us not forget that these somewhat mechanical virtues of regularity of attendance, long school life, etc., are after all but poor compensations for the self resource and independence that should be, and generally are, characteristic of the good school in the democratic State, and let us beware of setting up the excellencies of the French and German schools as ideals for our schools. There is nothing more dangerous than slavish imitation in education, and nothing would be more disastrous to English education and to our national character than to attempt to model our schools on the German school. To attempt, for example, to introduce German discipline into our schools would be more than a crime, it would be

a mistake. The national characteristics that have made English people the rovers and colonists of the world would be killed by such discipline.

I would that all of us should have a lively faith in the future of our schools, so that we may listen with unruffled equanimity when our good critic next indulges in a pessimistic croak on the future of the British people.

## THE VILLAGE SCHOOL.

THERE are few subjects of to-day which excite more attention and discussion than the rural problem. What has been termed the rural exodus has excited the oratory of the politician and the moralizing of the philosopher. One might imagine that because the population of Oxfordshire has diminished and that of Middlesex increased England was going rapidly to the dogs. A played-out country is ours.

However, an invariable corrective to such pessimistic bilious attacks is a look round the world. Precisely the same state of things is seen in France where the dearth of agricultural labour is said to be producing a very serious state of things, in Germany where the urban population is growing even more rapidly than in England at the expense of the rural population, and lastly in America where the transference of population from the country to town has been enormous. Is it not a more reasonable attitude to see in this world-wide phenomenon merely the evolutionary change consequent upon the nineteenth century industrial and commercial revolution?

A century back, America and our Colonies, even indeed many parts of Europe, were so remote as to be negligible quantities from a commercial and industrial standpoint. Steam and electricity have altered all that.

The world has become very small of late years. The price of my loaf no longer depends upon the manual labour of my neighbour Mr. Jones, the farmer, but upon the productive capacity of the land in Dakota, and one can no more quarrel with that fact than one can with the equator. It would be the act of a lunatic to try to grow grain on Ben Lomond; it is the part of the wise world citizen to grow grain on those blessed spots of our little earth where "she yieldeth most abundantly."

But more than that, the discoveries of the last century having liberated men from the soil, the same number of men are no longer required to produce the food necessary for the race. So enormously has the productive capacity of each man been increased by recent discoveries in agricultural science that one man can now produce as much from the same area of land as ten men could formerly. What is the result? The first result is obvious namely there are nine men left free for other work.

Only in a badly organised community should a wastage occur. These producing machines—men—must be utilised for other communistic purposes. The productive capacity of a man varies according to opportunity and training, more particularly training. An educated people is invariably capable of a *pro rata* higher productive capacity than an untrained people.

In America for example it has been shown that the productive capacity of each individual in the State of Massachusetts is higher than in any other State and this in an even higher ratio than their opportunities of training in that State.

But other things being equal the productive capacity is at its maximum in the towns, the great centres of industry. Hence it appears that this rural exodus is in obedience to a true instinct, to a natural law; and these

various societies for the staying of this new exodus are simply flying in the face of Providence. They cannot put back the hands of the clock, the movement is as impossible to stop as is the natural evolution of man. This movement to the city is simply a further step in the evolution of society. Until the equilibrium fixed by nature between land and city population has been reached this exodus will continue.

When that equilibrium has been reached the relationship between town and land will be recognised. Then the town and the State will recognise their dependence upon the land. The country will be fostered as the source of their raw material, whether it be grain or men. The absolute necessity of the State maintaining its supply of raw material pure and undefiled will compel the careful nourishing of the land and its children.

But at present this connection is not generally seen; neither the town nor the State feels at present under any special obligation to the country. In Germany and France it is true that the State has recognised to some extent its special obligations to the rural community, but here at home practically nothing is done to acknowledge this obligation.

All over the civilized world to-day the rural school is suffering. No matter where one looks one sees the same difficulties, the same poor opportunity, the same neglect. This may be some comfort. We are at any rate not the only offenders. On the other hand no number of wrongs will ever be a right; and further, I think that, if anything, this neglect of the rural school is more acute and less justifiable in England than anywhere else in the world. I fancy that matters are not so bad in Germany and Switzerland; perhaps not in France; in America I believe they are quite as bad, but then one

must always remember that the true area of comparison with America is not England but Europe.

Of these difficulties of the rural school, difficulties which, as I have said, face it all over the world, only one is really fundamental, and that is lack of funds. Until adequate funds are provided no nostrum however perfect pedagogically will heal the sore.

The country school, it is true, has one immense advantage over the town school in its children's fuller experience of nature, but this cannot be utilised and developed in the present conditions of the average country school. How rarely, for example, does the teacher possess a bright cheerful room and varied apparatus by means of which he can attract the children to school!

Is it not too often the case still that the country school is bare and comfortless, with unhygienic desks and unsanitary surroundings, in winter too cold, in summer too hot? Little wonder perhaps that the children are not attracted, and that the parents, with besides none too fine a sense of obligation to their offspring seize the first and every opportunity to keep their children from school. Thus we hear the cry from the teacher of France, England and America "What can I do for children who attend so spasmodically and irregularly?"

If the teacher were of the best such irregularity would kill his zealous efforts, but too often indeed the staffing of the rural school is not of the best. Wherever one looks one finds the staff poor either in quality or quantity.

In America the country teacher's qualifications are often appallingly low, in England the staff of the rural school is largely composed of unqualified teachers, and in France and Germany, we find both half day country



schools and enormous classes of over 100 children to one teacher, who avails himself of the help of monitors.

Then, again, the ignorant rural school manager or trustee whose sole aim in life appears to be to "save the rates" is no peculiarity of England. We have read much of his doings in the States; particularly of the ingenious way in which he provides for needy relatives. In France and Germany they are more fortunate, as the rural school in both cases has its income provided largely by the State, and its finances controlled by the State officers.

But still another reason for the unpopularity of the rural school all the world over is, I believe, to be found in the curriculum. I imagine that every school in the world should have a curriculum peculiar to itself and conditioned by the environment.

The vocational aim must be recognised in the school curriculum. It is true that all schools must train citizens of the State. But surely that does not necessitate a uniformity of curriculum. The farmer is no less a citizen than his brother of the town, though the life of the latter necessitates a more extensive and intensive use of books and pens, whilst that of the former needs rather keen eyes and ready hands. The common school curriculum is, I am convinced, far too literary. The three R.s are desirable and perhaps even necessary implements for the farm labourer to have at his disposal. Keen and trained powers of observation and of execution are absolutely indispensable to him. The present supremacy of the three R.s in the rural school must be challenged. The essential elements of the rural school curriculum are observation, expression, and power of doing. In place of the three R.s let us instal the three H.s as supreme in our school—the training of the heart, the hand, and the

head. No course in nature study, no set of school excursions unless taken as essentials and not mere embellishments will suffice to vivify the training of the country school. Sets of object lessons and doses of cottage gardening do not touch the really vital problem of curriculum. These are mere flavourings, the food still remains the same unpalatable stuff. The curriculum of this school should neither be agricultural nor horticultural but *real* and based upon the experience of the children. The law of apperception demands this—not the Society for The Improvement of Agricultural Education.

Such a revolution of curriculum demands, however, a radical change in the training of rural teachers. Let us glance for a moment at the training of the country teacher. It is to be observed, in the first place, that, just as at present the rural school is too often but an imitation of the urban school with its detailed classification and grading, so also there is no difference whatever in the training of the future rural and urban teacher. Indeed one may go further and say that the Training College of to-day turns out only one kind of teacher, namely the urban class teacher. Should such a one subsequently drift into the rural school he will find that his cherished ambition to become a head teacher has led him far from the plums of the profession. Yet there is no school in the world that calls for such resource, self help, and all the qualities that make up the good teacher as the village school.

It is depressing indeed under present conditions to find, as one often does, a brilliant teacher lost in the village school, whereas should it not be that under proper conditions nowhere can be seen so stimulating a sight as that of the gifted teacher who has *found* his village school?

That the Training College accommodation is fully

adequate to the demand in France and Germany and singularly inadequate in England and America is well known, but it is not generally recognised that the chief sufferer from this state of affairs is the village school. It is the poor man who ultimately pays for every form of national insufficiency. When further it is remembered that the training received is that specially suited for the town and singularly inappropriate for the country teacher it must be confessed that this question of professional training of teachers has become a most serious matter for the rural community. These schools, at any rate, need the best teaching only. In the town school, by supervision and mutual help amongst the teachers, the lame comrade can be carried home; in the country he dies by the way—good Samaritans do not pass that way. And I think the effort to improve the rural school by introducing new “turns” into the programme is bound to be futile until the artiste himself is prepared for them.

We cannot afford to convert these schools, already the victims of poverty and neglect, into research laboratories.

But leaving the question of adequacy let us look at the outfit of the country teacher. And for the better understanding of this question of outfit let us consider what are the attributes of the highest teaching.

The German teacher is the most completely trained teacher in the world; yet his training has not generally developed those attributes of self-help, independence, resourcefulness, and power of doing which are the characteristics of the best teaching, at any rate in a democratic state.

Both French and German teaching suffer from this lack of initiative, this dependence upon authority. I cannot go into detail here but I will state that in my opinion the training of our teachers, like that of the

German teacher, is too literary, and does not concern itself sufficiently with developing in its students the power of observing and the power of doing. Our Training Colleges should be professional schools and not secondary schools. At present the main portion of the Training College curriculum is entirely secondary, and only a fraction of the whole is devoted to purely professional work. Even the professional side does not develop sufficiently the power of doing, and of observing.

Leading German educators have recently been crying out for a change of the curriculum in the direction indicated. They contend that the future teacher should receive a Realschule (*i.e.*, a secondary school) training before proceeding to the Training College for the purely professional studies.

If this plan were adopted at home then many of the difficulties at present attending the training of our future rural teacher would be obviated. It should be stated at once that the training of the future rural teacher must certainly not be inferior to that of the urban teacher, only different. The requirements of both teachers are essentially similar; they both need resource and the power of doing, but the rural teacher needs also a special professional training in the pedagogic problems of the ungraded school.

The over classification so often met with in the rural schools is largely due to the fact that the experience of the teacher too often is limited to the highly graded school. Hence it would appear desirable that here, as in Germany, every Training College should have attached not only a graded but also an ungraded school. But the essential matter in this question of training country teachers is the development of the teachers' powers of observation and doing.

So long as the teacher's training lacks this, so long will the unpractical character of our school curriculum appeal to the farmer and labourer. How then is this power of doing, of resourcefulness, to be developed?

Well, to me it appears that there is only one way and that is by giving the curriculum of our Training College a much more scientific character than it has at present. The deficiencies of our Training Colleges in means for scientific training and manual dexterity are admitted.

We want our teachers, especially our country teachers, to have passed through, say, a two years course in purely professional and scientific work.

This scientific work would, I take it, cover the elements of chemistry, physics, geology, and biology, and the heuristic or inventive method should be no longer a term to be got up for the certificate examination but a real tool in the hands of a trained and skilled workman. The art, too, of such a training would not be highly finished studies in design or ornament but that needed in the class-room; so that the teacher may draw with ready skill before his pupils whatever the exigencies of the moment demand. One would then hear no longer a teacher's complaint that he cannot teach elementary science because he has no apparatus, nor would the futility of advocating the teaching of nature study in the village school appear. It has been urged that for such teaching no special training is necessary,—it is what everyone can teach if he only has the knowledge. This is I venture to think a serious mistake; nothing indeed can be taught well by an inexperienced person. In science teaching in the primary schools, moreover, it is the training itself that is of real permanent value; the facts imparted are of secondary importance. We teach our children the truths of science more for their moral

than their utilitarian value; the facts as facts quickly disappear from the child's mind, but the child's attitude towards the world around him has been permanently modified by a training in nature study.

It is to develop this scientific attitude towards the world outside on the part of both teacher and pupil that I so strongly advocate the necessity of a more scientific training for our teachers. English people are characterised from their neighbours by their individualistic development. There is nothing which so excites the admiration of the cultured foreigner as this self resource of the Saxon. We must see to it then that our schools do nothing to warp but everything to develop this attribute which has made England what she is.

A literary training will never develop this characteristic as a scientific training can.

By a scientific training one means of course not only a training in the practical work of the scientific laboratories, but also in whatever exercises develop the power of willing and doing. This is no new demand; it is what Froebel asked for and what is now so often seen in practice in our best infant schools.

There are other difficulties too of the village school. Too rarely does such a school possess a library though no school needs one more.

Moreover the lack of a further training than the primary school affords has had a bad influence, as parents have no encouragement to continue their children's education. In Wales and in America the inauguration of the rural secondary school promises to exercise a distinctly happy influence on the country schools around.

Would it not be better to substitute for the present capricious and vexatious areas of school administration a larger area and one that would contain at least one

secondary school and its natural feeders? Whether that area be accepted or not two facts are certain, first that the present areas of administration are much too small, and second that the present system of rating for school purposes is utterly unfair, and results in that appalling poverty which is the main cause of all the troubles of the village school. I see no reason whatever why the financial unit should coincide with the administrative unit. Local control is consistent with State support. Moreover there can be no doubt that it is the duty and privilege of the towns to help the surrounding rural areas to obtain an efficient system of education. As I have already pointed out this obligation on the part of the town, and of the State as a whole is not perhaps clearly recognised at present, but to those who have given a thought to the duties of the community and the mutual dependence of its various elements the matter is obvious. No State can be considered stable, much less flourishing, if any considerable portion of its people are growing up destitute of a thoroughly sound training physically and mentally. When further it is recognised that the country is the source of the virility and strength of a people it is evident how serious this defective training of the village school has become.

The fact is a niggardly economy is sapping the strength of our people, and will continue to do so until the State as a whole and the towns in particular recognise their duty in this direction. One would say that the training of country children is bound to cost much more than that of town children and yet the fact is it is made to cost less. In France the largest towns, *i.e.*, towns above 150,000 people, receive no help from the State in the training of their children, whereas more than three-fifths of the cost of the country schools is defrayed directly by

the State. We must in this matter "bear one another's burdens;" we cannot detach ourselves from our rural neighbours.

We have said much of the troubles of the rural school, but what of the school master?

His troubles indeed are implied in the former. The pleasures of rural life have formed the theme of many a philosopher's musings and poet's dreams, and some of us after spending a short time in these arcadian retreats return somewhat reluctantly to the rush and whirl of city life. Nevertheless there is no class of men who need the sustaining help of a conscious rectitude and of devotion to duty than the country school master. Too often is he made the victim of sectarian bigotry or personal animosity, his life constantly harassed by aggressive ignorance, and his best hopes dashed by parental stupidity. He sees the plants over whose care and nurture his best energies have been ungrudgingly spent torn ruthlessly from his garden just when the buds were beginning to appear, and the fruit of many years' toil showing itself. Too rarely are his efforts appreciated. He and his school are looked upon as necessary evils, that must be tolerated but never loved. It is indeed a gloomy picture the average village school. One finds oneself continually using grey tints in painting this picture.

Nevertheless, there are brilliant exceptions where the school has become the brightest spot in village life, radiating round it a bright glow of sympathy which penetrates every cottage in the village. But such are too rare, and when they do appear are evidence not of communistic loyalty and recognition of duty but of the triumph of character. In England the teacher commands the loyalty of the community by his own character, in



Germany by his position. The one is incidental, the other fundamental.

That the state of the village school is not altogether hopeless must be put to the credit of the village school master. He has not allowed his sordid and depressing surroundings to damp the ardour of his enthusiasm, his school is often a striking example of the old German saying that "As is the teacher so is the school."

Some of the best training in our land to-day is given in rural schools, despite the poverty of funds and irresponsiveness of the *milieu*. But this rich land of England has no right to expect such constant sacrifice from her teachers. "The labourer is worthy of his hire," and in nothing whatsoever—not even in her navy—can England with greater impunity allow a brainless parsimony to govern her, and to rob her children, especially her country children, of that training which is to make them worthy citizens of this imperial land.

## THE AIM OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL.

IT has been said that we are the fools of prejudice and the slaves of habit ; or, to put it another way, environment and heredity condition life. However, providing the habit is a good one, the more we are its slaves the better for our peace of mind. Life—wise living—is, indeed, the conversion of aptitudes into habits, and the well-ordered life is that in which the daily round and common task have become routine, and so left the mind free for the more momentous matters of life. Unfortunately, this is not often the case ; the habits of most of us are only half-formed. Whether we shall take an umbrella or not on a cloudy morning, instead of being a matter of habit, becomes a subject of much mental questioning and discussion, and the energy required for more vital matters is dissipated on these trivialities of life. The real perspective of things is lost or distorted. The really momentous matters of life are decided without that consideration and judgment which is their due, and we too often find ourselves the victims of circumstances over which we have lost control owing to this lack of foresight.

Such a momentous matter is the task of educating

our boys. Did we devote as much time and thought to this matter as to some of the trivialities of life, much disappointment and vexation would, I feel sure, be avoided. I sometimes think that modern life, with its rushing whirligig and kaleidoscopic changes, allows no time for thought on the vital problems of existence.

But it is the really busy person who has most spare time. It is the man without definite aim and ideal that is ever complaining of lack of time and opportunity.

Then, too, life seems so uncertain, you may put in your hand to pull out a plum or a stone, as fortune listeth. Why then devote much anxious thought to so uncertain a matter as our boys' future? Because it is the only matter in your boy's life that is entirely in your hands, and, more than that, it is the one matter that the child has a moral right to expect.

Every child in this land is morally entitled to the very best education his parent can give him, and no less. Therefore by the wise care or the thoughtless selfishness of your decision is your son's future decided. How many parents pack off their boys to a boarding school simply to get them out of the way, and consider their duty towards their boy completed when they have written him four letters a term, sent him some money for the tuck-shop and a highly indigestible cake? On the other hand, how many fond mothers keep their pet near them, carefully guarded from the rough winds of life, only in the end to leave him a tender plant all too weak to stand the rude buffettings of real life?

I believe that if more thought were devoted to this question of our boys' training, we should hear less of these criticisms so often heard of our schools and teachers. Were parents more conversant with the real problems and aims of education, we should have less criticism and

more sympathy, and that is what we need most of all. Critics can wound poets and artists, but they can kill the the best efforts of the teacher. The very essence of any successful system of training—of education—must be absolute confidence of the child in his teacher. The greatest teacher that ever lived was He in whom His disciples—His pupils—had the most complete, the most implicit faith. Lack of faith is absolutely fatal to all high teaching. If, then, the pupil hears carping criticism, mean insinuation, and open doubt of his teacher, there can be no question as to what will follow. If a parent wishes to ruin the training of his child, then let him begin by criticising the school and the teacher. These are strong words, but true words are always strong words. So the first lesson we must teach our sons is loyalty—real, uncompromising loyalty to teacher and school—and that will lead on unconsciously to the loyalty of citizenship and the State—loyalty to all good.

It is, I hope, unnecessary for me to say that I am speaking with reference to all schools and teachers, not any particular school or teacher.

But more than this really passive attitude is the positive attitude on our own part. It is not sufficient to write the precept—we must act the example. We must endeavour to take a keen, active interest in the school and teachers—in the actual training of our boys. We should take a practical interest in the lessons, in the games, and in everything that makes up the school-life of our boys.

Let it not be forgotten that not half of the week is the pupil in the school; the greater part is spent at home and in the street, where a thousand tiny hammers are beating him into shape and modifying his character. How careful, then, should we be to purify this home and

street influence, for it is obviously unfair to expect the school to obviate the defects of home or street.

One of the most difficult problems in the day school is how to unify home and school life, so that instead of being two forces pulling in opposite directions, as they generally are, they may pull in the same direction for the common good, *i.e.*, the welfare of the boy.

Parents and teachers too often regard each other as natural enemies. Parents in Germany are not allowed to visit their son's schools without official sanction. "Parents," said an English public schoolmaster, "are a clumsy contrivance of Providence for the production of schoolboys." Too often parents regard schoolmasters as merely necessary nuisances, and the less they have to do with them the better they are pleased. That it is a disagreeable duty is seen in the fact that it is almost invariably the mother who is expected to do it.

But let us ask ourselves one other question. What is the object of spending all this money upon educating our boys? What purpose have we in view?

It is just here that the fog is thickest. Once this question of aim has been settled aright, many of the so-called problems of secondary education disappear.

There can be no doubt that the primary purpose of school training is character-building.

The aim which we have in view in sending our boys to a secondary school is to prepare him for life, for real, universal life; not the life of the cloister or research laboratory, but for the daily life which we as citizens of this great empire have to live. He is to be trained, not stuffed with facts.

If we could only get folk to realise that school education is a system of training, many of the misconceptions of the function of school life would disappear. The aim

of the school is to turn out fine characters and trained intellects. A rare combination this—the fine character which is the product of the English public schools, and the trained intellect which is the product of the German gymnasium. Can we not hope to combine these? Both are equally indispensable.

It is the possession of a trained intellect that distinguishes the leaders of life. Our great statesmen are not graduates of technical or commercial schools but of Oxford and Cambridge, where commercial subjects have hitherto been severely ignored.

It is because Germany is annually turning out from her secondary schools so much trained intellect that I sometimes despair of the future of English commerce.

If, then, fine character and trained intellect are our ideals, how futile, how utterly extravagant is it to send children to a secondary school for a year or two? It is absurd to expect characters to be built and intellect trained under, say, four years. Either four years as a minimum or not at all, say I. Much better complete the boy's education in the primary school than send him for a top dressing to a secondary school, where his ideas of life may be unsettled, and a vague dissatisfaction engendered.

Further, if this is the avowed aim of the school it is evident that what our boys learn is of the highest importance. In drawing up the curriculum, it is not what subjects appear most useful, but which are the best means of training that must be selected.

The cry for commercial subjects would be less often heard were the question of their utility as a means of training considered. Far be it from me to depreciate the study of science and modern subjects generally, but I must emphasize this point in the selection of subjects.

No subject should be included in the curriculum of the secondary school which cannot be defended as an efficient mental weapon.

I have no doubt that boys attending the school a short time before leaving for the office may find a knowledge of shorthand and book-keeping immediately useful, but I think it would be wiser if such boys were not sent to the secondary school at all. These boys have their duties in life to fulfil, and as clerks and minor officials these special technical accomplishments may prove of considerable value pecuniarily; but the possession of such accomplishments is absolutely no substitute for a trained mind. It is more leaders, more officers of commerce, that we look for from our secondary schools. Young men skilled in modern languages, in modern ideas, trained to attack scientifically all problems presented to them, that is the product we must look for in our schools if we would assure the commercial supremacy of Great Britain. That is the type of boy the German secondary school is turning out, a boy who knows London as well as a Cockney and who speaks English better, trained in the use of two modern languages and the necessities of modern commerce, but who cannot write shorthand nor use the typewriter.

I remember the head master of a very large English higher grade school telling me that employers often came to him asking for a boy who could write shorthand or use the typewriter. His reply was that out of his couple of thousand pupils he hadn't one that answered the description, but, said he, "If you want an intelligent youth trained to think and quick to learn your methods, I can supply you." What we need in Swansea, what we need in England and Wales, is more skilled brain power.

The only real national asset a country possesses is its

stock of cultured minds and skilled hands. Coal mines and mineral lodes have a way of becoming exhausted, but the natural supply of brain material, in the rough so to speak, is, as far as we can see, inexhaustible.

Let me remind you that I said just now that the aim of the school should be a preparation for real life.

This vocational aim of the school must condition the curriculum, and so I would assert that, in my opinion, if it can be shown, as I believe it can, that modern languages and natural science form as sound a basis for the school curriculum as a training in Latin and Greek, then in modern schools such curriculum should be drawn up. I strongly hold that the exigencies of modern life demand that our schools should turn out young Englishmen and Welshmen, and not young Greeks and Romans.

Our boys should step out from the school fully armed, as a knight of old to the tournament, prepared to live their life in this twentieth century of ours. You have no right to ask a boy who has been living in lands and times two thousand years old, to breast the flood of modern life without a tremor.

The public schools of England must do more for life than their meagrely-equipped modern sides now do.

Let me say that I believe the future of the world is the possession of the land which has the greatest amount of skilled brain power at its command. I was studying the other day a most interesting set of figures showing in the various States of America that the productive capacity of the people in each State was in direct proportion to the amount spent on education in each State. Looked at merely as a commercial speculation, a community that invests its money in education is laying out its capital in the soundest commercial concern.



If you want to keep American bars out of Swansea, then put more money into your schools.

Finally, let me point out that it is the bounden duty of the State to seek out from gutter and hovel, from palace and castle, those bright minds which "the Good God" scatters here and there over His world. For its own sake, the community cannot afford to allow these rare creations to die in cellars or run to waste on Scottish moor or Welsh hill. We must gather them in; nourish and care for them, the only elements of progress. "We must leave no Giotto's by the sheep-folds," nor no Ceiriog in the vales. How many mute, inglorious Miltons thus live and die for lack of opportunity! Yet, as Huxley so forcibly put it, "If the nation could buy a future Watt or Faraday for £100,000 he would be dirt cheap at the money." We in Wales have done and are doing our best to avoid this loss. Remember that it is these first years that are the troubled ones; anon will come happier days when other labourers will have entered into our labours and bear aloft the good banner of education, of which our people are so passionately fond.

## WANTED: A MODERN SCHOOL.

MR. SADLER has pointed out in his valuable essay on the Prussian Secondary Schools for Boys (Special reports of Board of Education) that questions of curricula, programmes of studies, etc., occupy a much more prominent place in German educational discussions than they have hitherto done in England. It is an interesting fact in this connection that whereas Germany and America annually publish about three hundred educational journals each, we in England cannot boast of one tenth that number.

It is such facts as these that are the momentous ones in comparisons of national systems of education. Those mechanical virtues of regularity of attendance, long school life, lack of friction in administration which excite the enthusiasm of casual observers have their compensations—their drawbacks. The beautifully sensitive way with which the French educational machine responds to the slightest pressure of the minister at Paris, and the unquestioned obedience of the Prussian parent to the school law, appeal directly to the teacher who in his intense admiration of the beautiful machine is apt to overlook the fact that it is a machine. These mechanical virtues have their value it is true, but they have obvious limits and defects. However perfectly children may

attend school, unless school life engenders in them a love of knowledge, self-respect, self-resource, and a general independence of character, its value will be incomparably inferior to another system, where children attend school perhaps less regularly but more spontaneously, and where the child's self-respect and resources are engendered and developed throughout the whole of his school life.

The only real basis of comparison between national systems involves a careful study of national temperaments and ideals. The question then becomes not "which system is the best" but "which system best fulfils its function." It must be remembered that the school is a political institution. States do not educate from pure philanthropy, but in monarchical States to make soldiers, and in democratic States to make citizens of their children. In other words, popular education is an act of self-defence on the part of the State.

In comparing secondary education in Germany and England, it is not sufficient to show, as may indeed readily be done, that the curriculum of the Prussian gymnasium is deeper, wider, pedagogically sounder than that of the average secondary classical school in England, or that the attainments of the "graduated" pupil of the gymnasium are superior to those of the English pupil of like age. We must go further and show that the training received in the German secondary school is a better training for life—for the real life of to-day—than is the training given at the English school, and that therefore the pupil leaves school better equipped for the battle of life in Germany than in England.

The aim of training may be thus stated: It is to produce fine character and trained intellect. Neither of these two essentials can be omitted. We demand of our

schools the trained intellect, characteristic of the product of the German gymnasium and fine character characteristic of the product of our best public schools. The primary aim of any system of secondary school training is trained intellect and fine character.

Any system which does not produce these jointly is defective. A fine character without a trained intellect is apt to be fearfully ineffective. The trained intellect without the fine character is a dangerous possession.

It is unnecessary to labour the point that character building is the ultimate aim of all school training—primary and secondary.

Fortunately that truth has long been recognised by English people. They have always insisted upon character as the criterion of fitness in teachers and statesmen, and I fancy that continental peoples, failing to recognise this truth, have often imputed to us an “unctuous rectitude” which we ill deserved.

This recognition of character building as the primary aim of their work has been characteristic of English public school teachers, and it is undoubtedly to their lasting honour that, having seized hold of this fundamental truth, they have allowed neither the clamour of the multitude nor the advocacy of the specialist to turn them aside from this, their primary purpose in life.

But in holding thus fast to the one aspect have they not perhaps rather failed to recognise in full the other essential aspect of training? Trained intellect is neither more nor less indispensable than fine character.

It is the trained intellect that characterises the leaders of life.

Were the real aim of school training generally recognised we should hear less of this cry for commercial education. It is not minds trained to the solution of

special problems that we need, but a mind that has been trained to attack all problems. The Germans laugh at our many fads and go on turning out of their schools annually these trained intellects.

The German commercial school is a secondary school with a curriculum which has as its basis the study of modern languages and science, not shorthand and book-keeping.

We pride ourselves on being a practical people; we are; we introduce a little book-keeping and shorthand with a dash of linguistics into the primary school curriculum and call it a commercial school.

It is the amount of trained intellect at the disposal of the State that is the only criterion of the national strength. For its own safety a democratic State must needs give all its citizens a certain modicum of training, but for permanent stability—for ultimate success it must give its bright minds, its potential aristocracy of intellect, all the training at its disposal. Not by the number of its soldiers nor by the area of its possessions is the truly permanent greatness of a people gauged, but rather by the quantity and quality of its skilled brain power. In this aspect the supreme value of the educational ladder in a democratic State is fully realised. The State for its own sake must gather in its God-given bright minds, the nuggets scattered mid the quartz. We must leave no Chatterton in the attics, nor Ceiriog in the vales.

These bright spirits are our national capital. Upon the permanent supply of these we alone rely for permanent success.

An Arkwright or Stephenson is worth many a gold-field to the State. But having gathered them in, the problem then becomes how may the State best utilise them for the general good? How shall we train them?

And this brings us to the question of curriculum. This is a terribly vexed question—this question of curriculum. In Germany it has given rise to an enormous amount of discussion, from the Emperor downwards. However it has gone beyond the academic stage in Germany, and has resulted in the setting up of various types of secondary schools which differ according as their curriculum is classical, semi-classical, or modern.

First we have the venerable classical school—the gymnasium corresponding closely to our public schools, but devoting less time to Greek and doing more for modern needs. This school possesses privileges which no other type of school possesses and is attended mainly by children of the highest classes of society only.

The semi-classical school has no Greek, less privileges, and children of a lower social rank. Finally the modern school has no classics, few privileges, and scholars mainly drawn from the commercial class.

In England and America such schools of special types, whose functions are based upon a careful and philosophical differentiation of curricula do not generally exist.

In America, the high school with its electives and optionals, and in England the secondary school with its modern, its army, and its commercial side, endeavour to fulfil the same functions as all these different secondary schools of Germany.

It has been argued by an American writer that, by the system of "electives," each pupil in a school may have a curriculum peculiarly appropriate to himself but not necessarily so to his neighbour, and so by this means the development of the child proceeds upon a natural plan and he enjoys at the same time the various advantages of a corporate school life. In other words,

intellect and character are trained upon natural and therefore the best lines. The view is somewhat idealistic. The true school like society is based upon a series of compromises between the individual and the community. The father who sends his boy to Eton probably does not do so because he considers the curriculum peculiarly appropriate to his son, but because it is near enough to his ideal and at the same time approaches the ideal curriculum which his friend Smith has worked out for the young Smith. So each sacrifices something for the common good. The "elective" system, when the "electives" are fixed by the exigencies of external examinations or the whims of parents has, I venture to think, a most pernicious influence. The school as a whole has no curriculum; it has a more or less "fortuitous concatenation" of subjects in its time table prescribed for it by outside bodies. The drawing out of such a time table is a marvel of ingenuity.

Such a school curriculum lacks entirely that philosophical unity which is the first essential of a school course. Even a heaven sent teacher would fail to build character with such a medley of curricula.

Our public schools too have gained nothing by their adoption of "sides." These offend every one; the "classic" despises them and the true "modern" sneers at them. Such meagrely equipped sides are no satisfaction to modern needs. These "sides" have tended to destroy the unity of school life and have often produced a type of intellect which is in no sense characteristic of the English public school. They have largely failed too in their primary purpose; they have not brought the public school appreciably nearer the public life.

The cloistral attitude of the public school is as marked to-day as ever it was. These modern sides too have

suffered from the contempt of the school as a whole and too often have resolved themselves into convenient receptacles for the inferior minds of the school.

Would it not be wiser to recognise this and for the whole school to revert to the purely classical training of former days, but of course with a curriculum modified to meet to some extent the exigencies of modern life, as does that of the gymnasium?

But should these "exigencies of modern life" affect the curriculum of the school at all? If intellectual training be the aim then surely it may be said a training in the classics may suffice. To this it must at once be said, *school is a preparation for life*. Our schools must, as the German Emperor put it, turn out young Englishmen and not young Greeks and Romans. The vocational aim of the school must be admitted and so, if it can be shown, as I believe it can, that modern languages and natural sciences afford *as sound* a basis for the curriculum as the classical tongues, then the former must have the preference, because of their higher vocational value.

The school must prepare for life, for the real life of to-day. Our boys must be prepared to live their lives in this twentieth century and in this Imperial England.

What sufficed fifty years ago is woefully lacking to-day.

The attitude of our boys on leaving school towards life should be modern not classical; they should be saturated with modern ideas, modern methods, modern problems, and so their training must be modern. The experience of Germany has shown us that modern languages and science form an absolutely sound basis pedagogically for the school curriculum.

What we need in England to-day is, firstly, more differentiation of type in our schools. Our schools must



cease to be a "Jack of all trades and master of none;" secondly our special need is a school of the modern type as seen in Germany. These schools are turning out young men who speak English and French. They have been trained too in natural science and the higher technique of commerce. They are fully equipped as officers of the great German commercial army.

I remember a German boy of fifteen telling me in perfect English, which he had been learning some eighteen months, that he hoped to become a German merchant in London; he spoke French quite as well as he did English. Compare this boy's chances, with his colloquial knowledge of French and English, his training in higher mathematics and science, and in the higher technique of commerce with those of his rival the English secondary scholar.

The modern language teacher in Germany will tell you "We are giving our boys as sound a training pedagogically as can be given by the classical languages. We are training both character and intellect by this means. In teaching a modern language we endeavour to vivify the teaching by saturating our pupils with the foreign atmosphere. We want them to breathe the atmosphere to catch the characteristics of you English people, so that when our boys come to England, as they will do they will come not as strangers but as friends."

And they are doing all this and more. These are the trained intellects that the German secondary school is turning out on to the commercial world every year, and it is from these schools, and not from the technical and special schools that English commerce will receive, if at all, its death-blow.

## COMMERCIAL EDUCATION ON THE CONTINENT.\*

\*The authorities consulted are:—

“Education of Business Men,” a Report to the American Bankers’ Association, by E. J. James, Ph.D. (New York), reprinted in the 1895-6 Report of the Commissioner of Education, Washington.

“Commercial Education in Europe,” a Special Report in the 1896-7 Annual Report of the Bureau of Education, Washington, U.S.A.

“Special Reports on Educational Subjects,” by M. E. Sadler, Education Department, 1897. &c.

DR. E. J. JAMES, now professor in the University of Chicago, addressing the American Bankers’ Association in 1893, said:—“It is not far from the truth to say that there is no such instruction [*i.e.*, commercial] given in England at all, at least such thorough, systematic, and advanced instruction as would justify our putting it in the same category as that of France, Austria, or Germany. It is in this department as in so many others. The genius of the people—so eminently commercial—the favourable situation of the country, and the many circumstances which have combined to put England at the very head of commercial nations have also seemed at first to dispense with the necessity of giving time and labour to systematic school preparation for such occupations. On the other hand, the many unfavourable circumstances

which have combined to prevent the growth of commerce and industry in Germany, France, and Austria have brought these nations to a recognition of the fact that thorough education along all these lines was the only hope of their being able to compete with England at all. The result has been what might have been expected. Owing to the superior education and training of her youth, Germany has been steadily diminishing the disadvantages of her position, and English merchants are now awaking to the fact not only that German trade is increasing more rapidly than English, but that even the trade of England herself is passing into the hands of German merchants who have settled in London." I do not quote this American writer's words because of any novelty or point that they may possess but because they are those of an American and of a professor to boot; moreover, they come from one of the very highest authorities on international commercial education. It has indeed been long recognised that we British people are gradually losing our commercial supremacy in the world's markets, and that unless something (but what, is not very clear) is done and soon too, it will have passed away from us to our more far-seeing rivals on the Continent.

It is a characteristic of the German people—this faculty of foresight. Bismarck, long years before 1870, foresaw and prepared for Sedan—so was this commercial rivalry with Great Britain foreseen and carefully prepared for. Whilst we were organising our primary education, Germany and France were extending and completing their systems of secondary, technical, and commercial education. To-day, whilst England possesses no organised system of secondary, or commercial education, our continental rivals possess a practically complete system,

where their youth are provided with so fine a weapon for the fight that their British rivals are, to all intents and purposes, unarmed before them. Let us glance at this armoury.

It is now 130 years ago since the Vienna Board of Trade called attention to the inadequate provision for a commercial training in the Empire, and the State founded a "Commercial Academy" for the education of merchants. It is not my intention to follow through its many years of vicissitude this admirable institution, the direct ancestor of the present "Vienna Commercial Academy." In 1872 the Austrian Government held an inquiry into the organisation of commercial schools which culminated in the Act of 1873, by which the commercial schools of Austria were divided into two distinct classes, higher and lower. By subsequent regulations, these commercial schools were divided into 1. Lower or two year course schools, and 2. Commercial academies or three year course schools. These latter are open only to graduates of the Real schools and Gymnasia, that is to say, boys who have left the intermediate schools with the usual leaving Certificates. The lower commercial schools, which are very numerous, are open to all boys of 14 years, who have passed through the elementary schools. These latter are under the supervision of special Inspectors, and are supplied with text books specially suited to their aims, these aims being mainly a thorough grounding in modern languages. It is to be noted that these Austrian commercial schools are not simply *annexes*, but corporate entities; for the experience of Austria, as of other countries, has been that to try to develop a commercial course side by side with other courses in the same institution is to court disaster. It is found that such a system produces

a maximum of friction with a minimum of result, and that finally the commercial course sinks into painless oblivion, the despised of teachers and taught. Speaking in 1892 of these lower commercial schools, the Austrian Minister of Education said:—"To bring about the establishment and extension of the system of schools with a two years' course is a necessity since commercial clerks have not hitherto been prepared professionally to an extent commensurate with the needs of the commercial world. Hence wherever communities, boards of trade, and commercial societies find suitable occasion for opening such schools, the State should do all in its power to aid them in their laudable efforts."

The most interesting school of commerce in Austria is the "Commercial Academy" of the city of Vienna, founded by the Chamber of Commerce in 1856. It had in 1891 no less than 753 students in attendance, of whom 115 were taking a one year's course, and 638 a three years' course. Of the 115 taking a one year's course, 81 were between 17 and 20 years of age. And of the 638 taking the three years' course 488 were between 16 and 18 years of age.

The one year's course is only open to boys who have completed their secondary school course, and the curriculum of this course is as follows:—

PRESCRIBED SUBJECTS.

Political Economy	...	...	...	...	2 hours per week.
Commercial Geography and Statistics	...	...	...	3	"
Commercial and Industrial Law	...	...	...	3	"
Book-keeping and Correspondence	...	...	...	6	"
Mercantile and Political Arithmetic	...	...	...	5	"
Study of International Trade	...	...	...	2	"
Study of products	...	...	...	2	"
Life and other Insurance	...	...	...	1	"

## ELECTIVE SUBJECTS OF WHICH TWO MUST BE TAKEN AND ONE PASSED.

French (using German as Medium of Instruction) ... ..	3 hours per week.
French (using French as Medium of Instruction) ... ..	3 "
English ... ..	3 "
Italian ... ..	3 "

## OPTIONAL SUBJECTS.

Customs, Tariff Legislation, and Administration ... ..	2 "
Penmanship ... ..	1 "
Practical work in the laboratory for the study of products.	

The great majority of the pupils of the Academy proceed through a more complete course than the above, namely, three years' course, the curriculum of which is:—

## FIRST YEAR.

German ... ..	3 hours per week.
French ... ..	3 "
English or Italian ... ..	3 "
Commercial Geography ... ..	2 "
History ... ..	2 "
Mathematics ... ..	4 "
Commercial Arithmetic ... ..	3 "
Commercial Knowledge and Work in Model Office ... ..	3 "
Physics ... ..	3 "
Natural History ... ..	2 "
Penmanship ... ..	2 "
—	
Total 30	

SECOND YEAR.

German ... ..	2 hours per week.
French ... ..	3 "
English or Italian ... ..	3 "
Commercial Geography ... ..	2 "
History ... ..	2 "
Mathematics ... ..	2 "
Commercial Arithmetic ... ..	3 "
Book-keeping ... ..	4 "
Letter Writing ... ..	2 "
Commercial Law ... ..	2 "
Chemistry ... ..	3 "
Study of products ... ..	2 "
	—
	Total 30

THIRD YEAR.

German ... ..	2 hours per week.
French ... ..	3 "
English or Italian ... ..	3 "
Commercial Geography ... ..	2 "
Commercial History ... ..	2 "
Commercial Arithmetic ... ..	3 "
Political Arithmetic ... ..	2 "
International Trade ... ..	2 "
Model Office ... ..	5 "
Commercial Law ... ..	2 "
Political Economy ... ..	3 "
Study of products ... ..	2 "
	—
	Total 31

ELECTIVE STUDIES.

1. Practical work in chemical laboratory. 4 hours per week for 2nd and 3rd year students.

2. Practical work in laboratory for study of products. For 3rd year students.

3. Study of customs laws and practical work in details of customs administrations. For 3rd year students, 2 hours per week.

4. Stenography. In two one-year courses each of 2 hours per week.

The yearly fees at this famous Academy amount to £16, but there are a large number of bursaries and maintenance scholarships by which the pupils of poor parents may enjoy the advantages of so excellent a course of training. Between thirty and forty of the pupils are foreigners. There is no special examination held at the end of each year, but the pupils are examined throughout the year, and a careful record of their progress and attainments kept.

In the year 1896, Austria (without Hungary) possessed 15 academies similar to the one described above, twenty secondary commercial schools, 6 private commercial Institutions partly secondary and partly elementary, 62 elementary commercial schools, and 18 commercial schools connected with other institutions. There can be no doubt that Austria to-day possesses a very useful and complete system of commercial education. It has grown up and developed under the eyes of skilful, experienced, and sympathetic administrators, who have not been afraid of being called utilitarians for casting aside all matter that was not of a distinctly commercial and mercantile character. There is another Academy in the Austrian Empire that is worth studying, namely that of Prague. This was opened on April 19th, 1850, by the Commercial Council of the city, and was largely subscribed for by the citizens. At present there are 400 students in attendance, and its curriculum (one of three years) is as follows :—



## CURRICULUM.

					<i>First Year.</i>	<i>Second Year.</i>	<i>Third Year.</i>
Theory of Commerce	...	...	...	...	1	1	—
Office Work and Correspondence	...	...	...	...	2	—	—
Mercantile Correspondence and Book-keeping	...	...	...	...	—	4	5
Mercantile Arithmetic	...	...	...	...	3	3	2
Political Arithmetic	...	...	...	...	—	—	1
Usage and Casting of Produce	...	...	...	...	—	—	1
Algebra	...	...	...	...	2	1	—
Geography	...	...	...	...	2	2	2
History	...	...	...	...	2	2	2
Political Economy	...	...	...	...	—	—	2
Commercial Legislation	...	...	...	...	—	—	2
Natural History	...	...	...	...	2	—	—
Physics	...	...	...	...	2	1	—
Chemistry and Technology	...	...	...	...	—	2	2
Knowledge of Products and Technology	...	...	...	...	—	2	3
German	...	...	...	...	4	3	3
French Language and Correspondence	...	...	...	...	4	4	3
English Language and Correspondence	...	...	...	...	4	3	3
Penmanship	...	...	...	...	2	2	1
					—	—	—
Total	...	...	...	...	30	30	32

## OPTIONAL SUBJECTS.

					<i>First.</i>	<i>Second.</i>	<i>Third.</i>
Italian Language and Correspondence	...	...	...	...	3	3	3
Spanish Language and Correspondence	...	...	...	...	—	2	2
Bohemian Language and Correspondence	...	...	...	...	2	2	2
Practical Chemistry	...	...	...	...	—	—	4
Stenography	...	...	...	...	2	2	1

In Switzerland commercial education has taken much the same direction as it has in England, that is to say, the attempt has been made to graft it on to existing institutions, and with only partial success. The three best known of the Swiss Schools of Commerce are those of Berne, Basle, and Geneva. The Berne School is simply a higher department of the cantonal High School.

The boys of the age 10-15 years all pursue the same course, which, including as it does French and English, gives them a good grounding in languages before they commence their special commercial training when 15 years old. The subjects of instruction in the commercial department, which course extends over two years, are :— Physics, chemistry, knowledge of merchandise, drawing, calligraphy, gymnastics, science of trade, history, geography, counting house work and book-keeping, mathematics, commercial arithmetic, German and religion. Total number of hours of instruction each week is 37 in first, and 36 in second year. The tuition fee is £2 8s. 4d. per annum.

At Basle a similar system is adopted, except that the course extends over three years instead of two ; and is free.

In the year 1887, the city of Geneva established a school of commerce quite distinct from the cantonal High School. One-fifth of the annual expense of this school is defrayed by fees, another fifth by the canton, the remainder by the city itself.

The subjects of instruction are French, German, English, Italian, Spanish (last 3 optional), calligraphy, drawing, book-keeping, mathematics, geography, history, physics, chemistry, civil law, insurance and tariffs, and knowledge of merchandise.

A system of visiting and reporting upon various mercantile establishments in the vicinity is in vogue, and 8 hours a week are spent in the model counting house. Total hours per week are 33 in first and second years, and 34 in third year.

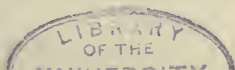
“ As a model of a commercial ‘*continuation*’ school may be mentioned the school in St. Gall, where French is taught three hours a week throughout a four years’ course. English, Italian, German, penmanship, commercial

arithmetic, discount, civics and other branches. In summer the school is held from 6 to 8 a.m., in the winter from 7 to 9 a.m., and from 6 to 9 p.m. in both winter and summer. All utensils and stationery used in the school are furnished by the teachers, for which, in summer one franc, in winter two francs, are paid by the student."

The commercial schools of France are of two kinds. There are seven higher institutions corresponding closely to the Austrian academies; of these, two are in Paris, and one each in Marseilles, Rouen, Havre, Bordeaux, and Lyons. The lower class of commercial schools is made up of four intermediate and primary Schools, three of which are in Paris, and one in the provinces. We take no account here of the French higher primary schools, which give an excellent preliminary commercial education.

Altogether there are in France eleven purely commercial schools. Three of these are under the direction of the Paris Chamber of Commerce, four are maintained from private sources.

At Rouen the commercial school is connected with the city school of science and art; the Bordeaux school is connected with the industrial school of that city; whilst the school of commerce at Rheims is directly controlled by the Minister of Education. All these schools, with the exception of the last, which has lost all elasticity and become stereotyped, are leading a very precarious existence, and everything points to the management and support of these institutions being taken over by the State. The schools are all subsidised by the State to a certain extent—aid being given in the form of maintenance scholarships and bursaries. A very considerable proportion of the scholars are foreigners,



The age of admission is 15 years, and the complete course extends over 3 years. To those candidates who complete the stipulated course and pass the necessary examinations, a diploma is awarded, whilst gold and silver medals distinguish the clever students.

Those graduates who obtain this diploma, are by the State exempted from one year's military service, whilst all the resources of the schools are utilised to secure for such good berths in the mercantile world.

The curriculum of these French Schools of Commerce is

<i>Subjects.</i>	<i>Hours per Week for each Course.</i>			
	<i>First Year.</i>	<i>Second Year: First Half.</i>	<i>Second Year: Second Half.</i>	<i>Third Year.</i>
French ... ..	9	4½	2	—
Mathematics ... ..	4½	4½	3½	3
Accounting ... ..	3	3	3½	3
Penmanship ... ..	2	2	2½	1
Commercial Correspondence ... ..	—	1	1	—
Physical Geography ... ..	2½	2	—	—
Commercial Geography ... ..	—	—	3	3
History ... ..	2	2½	—	—
Commercial History ... ..	—	—	1½	1½
Physics ... ..	1½	1½	1	1½
Chemistry ... ..	1½	3	1½	1½
Mechanics ... ..	—	—	—	1
Natural History ... ..	—	1	—	—
Raw Materials ... ..	—	—	1½	2
Technology ... ..	—	—	—	1
Commercial Law ... ..	1	1	1	1½
Fiscal Legislation ... ..	—	—	1	—
Political Economy ... ..	—	—	—	1½
Drawing ... ..	3	3	3	3
Stenography ... ..	—	—	1	—
German ... ..	3	4	4	3½
English ... ..	3	3	3	2½
Spanish ... ..	—	—	1	1
Italian ... ..	—	—	1	1
Industrial Visits ... ..	—	—	—	3½

This is how these French boys spend their day :—

5.30 to 6	a.m.	...	...	Rising and making toilet.
6	to 8	a.m.	...	Study in the class-rooms.
8	to 8.30	a.m.	...	Recreation and breakfast.
8.30 to 11.0	a.m.	...	...	Lessons.
11	to 12.30	a.m.	...	Luncheon and recreation.
12.30 to 2.0	p.m.	...	...	Lessons.
2	to 2.30	p.m.	...	Recreation.
2.30 to 5	p.m.	...	...	Lessons.
5.0 to 7.0	p.m.	...	...	Dinner and recreation.
7.0 to 9.0	p.m.	...	...	Study in the class-rooms.

With such a time table as this can there be much wonder that "Jacques" often appears to be a very dull boy? Here, as in Germany, the effects of overpressure in the schools, both primary and secondary, are very visible, and one cannot but thoroughly sympathise with the German Emperor's appeal to his schoolmasters to lighten the task, so that the physical powers of the children may not be dwarfed and atrophied by this unnatural cultivation of the mental faculties. At Cassel, where the Emperor attended school, there was a class, he once said, where, out of 20 boys, only he and another boy did not wear spectacles!

The most famous commercial school on the Continent, not so much for the number of pupils (it has about 150 at present), as for its age and the thoroughness of its course, is l'Institut de Commerce at Antwerp. It was founded in 1853 by a former Minister of State, and has educated over 4,000 students. Its cost of maintenance and management is undertaken by the City Council, but the State also contributes towards it. The students live in private houses, and are not admitted until they have reached the age of 16½ years. The examination for admission comprises papers in French, English, German, book-keeping, geography, mathematics, chem-

istry, physics, history, commercial law, and political economy. The full course extends over two years.

“The most important place in the course for the first year of the Institute is the practical work in the model counting house. Here the more theoretical branches have their focus. Here is utilised that which is taught in the scholastic branches. In the counting house the mercantile practice is imitated in its smallest details and widest bearings. Regular business transactions take place, and every student in turn is made to participate in all kinds of transactions and occupations. Business correspondence is first carried on in French, then in the other languages taught. Every month stock is taken and a balance sheet furnished. During the first year business is done only with European countries; in the second year the business is extended to transmarine

## CURRICULUM.

SUBJECTS.	Hours per week.	
	First Year.	Second Year.
Counting House Practice ... ..	12	12
Commercial Arithmetic ... ..	3	3
Chemistry and Knowledge of Merchandise ...	2	2
Political Economy ... ..	1	2
History of Commerce ... ..	2	—
Geography of Commerce ... ..	1	3
Commercial and Maritime Law ... ..	1	1
Elements of International Law ... ..	1	—
Tariff Legislation ... ..	1	—
Knowledge of Shipbuilding ... ..	1	—
Dutch Language ... ..	2	2
German ... ..	3	3
English ... ..	3	3
Spanish or Italian Language ... ..	3	3
Total ... ..	36	34

countries. All the bearings of trade are taught, so that the students gain a clear view of commerce and its ramifications all over the world."

I here append the curriculum of this school, which has served as the prototype of so many Continental schools of commerce.

The students are examined at the end of each year. The successful students at the completion of the second examination receive the diploma of "Licentiate in Commerce," and are then offered travelling scholarships tenable for three years. They then select a foreign country, where they take up their abode, and study the system of commerce there in vogue. These students often open up for Belgian houses very valuable agencies in these countries, and so a *quid pro quo* is often quickly evident. Of late years, South America, Japan, China, and India have been favourite fields for these Belgian students, many of whom have obtained Belgian consulships in those countries.

In Germany there are 55 commercial high schools with 5,681 pupils. Many of these German Schools are supported and managed entirely by Trade or Merchant Guilds, others again by the cities, and only a comparatively small number by the State, but I do not intend here discussing in detail the complete system of German commercial education. The German Real and Oberrealschulen give their pupils a magnificent preliminary commercial education, particularly as regards modern languages. As Mr. Sadler puts it:—"Apart from its purely educational significance, it is clear that this form of curriculum has a very close bearing on commercial questions. The schools do not impart what would be called, in the narrow sense of the term, technical education. But they do fit their pupils to acquire very quickly

on leaving school an accurate and intelligent knowledge of their business. These schools naturally lead up to commercial life. When a boy leaves the schools and enters a commercial house, there is no abrupt change in the subjects which he has to think about. He has a firm grasp of the grammar of the two foreign languages, and can, within natural limits, fluently write *and converse* in both of them. He is familiar with geography and with the conditions of life in different parts of the world. He is well grounded in advanced arithmetic. He has facility in composition. He has been trained in accurate habits of observation. His reasoning powers have been abundantly exercised on subjects similar to those which present themselves to him in his daily life. When he comes to London or Paris, he can fully understand what is said to him, and finds himself familiar with the conditions of life which prevail there. In other words, he has been prepared to take advantage of all opportunities of getting commercial experience. These schools may not be the best fitted to prepare lads for those occupations which are concerned with *making* things, but they are excellently well designed to prepare them for occupations which are concerned with *selling* things. Just as in industry a man needs constructive skill, so in commerce he is all the more likely to succeed if he possesses practised powers of apt expression, and it is the latter which the linguistic studies of the Realschulen are specially fitted to train."

In 1831 was founded the public Commercial Institute of Leipsic—due to the City Merchants' Guild. It is now under the control and supported by the Chamber of Commerce, and during the year 1892-3 had 681 pupils. The school is divided into three portions.

1. The school for apprentices. This school is open



only to apprentices in the city of Leipsic, and to them the State concedes the highly valued privilege of attending this school in lieu of the ordinary compulsory continuation school. The curriculum of this apprentice school is :—

SUBJECTS.	Hours per Week.		
	Third Class.	Second Class.	First Class.
German	2	1	1
English	—	2	2
French	2	2	2
Commercial Arithmetic	3	2	2
Commercial Science	—	1	1
Office Work and Book-keeping	—	1	1
Correspondence	—	—	1
Geography	1	1	—
Penmanship	2	—	—
Total	10	10	10

The hours of instruction are from 7 to 9 in the morning, or two to four in the afternoon, and the tuition fee is £4 per annum.

2. The next section of the school is open to all boys over 14 years of age who can pass the qualifying entrance examination in German, French, geography, history, and arithmetic. This is called the Higher Division, and is likewise a three years' course.

Graduates of this course are exempted by the State from one year's military service. The tuition fee is from £12 to £16 per annum.

3. There is finally the third section, or "professional course," open only to those who have already obtained their military exemption, but who wish to specialise in

## CURRICULUM.

SUBJECTS.	Hours per Week.		
	Third Class.	Second Class.	First Class.
German ... ..	4	3	3
English ... ..	5	4	4
French ... ..	5	4	4
Mathematics ... ..	3	3	4
Commercial Arithmetic ... ..	5	3	2
Physics ... ..	3	2	—
Mechanical Technology ... ..	—	—	2
Chemistry ... ..	—	2	2
Study of Products ... ..	—	—	1
Geography ... ..	2	2	2
History ... ..	2	2	2
Commercial Science ... ..	—	2	—
Commercial Law ... ..	—	—	1
Office Work ... ..	—	2	—
Correspondence ... ..	—	—	2
Book-keeping ... ..	—	—	3
Political Economy ... ..	—	—	2
Penmanship ... ..	3	2	—
Drawing ... ..	2	2	—
Athletics ... ..	2	2	2
Total ... ..	36	35	36

some particular branch of commercial education. This course lasts one year only.

Out of the 681 pupils in this school in 1892-3, 454 were in the apprentice school taking a course of 10 hours a week for three years, 155 were in the three years' course of the Higher Division, whilst 72 were attending the professional course.

There can be no doubt, I think, that this Commercial School of Leipzig meets the modern requirements of a great city in a very complete and satisfactory manner. Those lads who, leaving the public elementary schools at the age of 14, become apprentices, doubtless

find in this apprentice school that special training in the theory and practice of their daily work, which was, of course, absent in their previous training, but which that training well fitted them to receive. Then the Higher Course of three years would admirably meet the requirements of the sons of well-to-do tradesmen and merchants, and whilst qualifying them for partial exemption from military service would give them a thorough grasp of all the details, both practical and theoretical, of their future career. The necessities of the brilliant pupils—the future merchant princes—are fully provided for in the professional course.

May it soon be that our large towns will be able to offer similar commercial advantages to their young men. Let us note, in conclusion, that all this good work has been done mainly by local effort, and, also, that however satisfactory our grammar school system may be, our educational panoply is very incomplete and vulnerable whilst so much is left undone.

## A GERMAN COMMERCIAL SCHOOL.

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UPON no branch of our national system of education are more diverse views held, or panaceas suggested than upon our system of technical education.

It is invariably assumed that the present system of technical education in England is utterly inefficient and inadequate: yet this is not the opinion of observant foreigners. "L'Angleterre a, dans ces dernières années, progressé à pas de géant dans la diffusion de l'enseignement professionnel, si bien qu' aucune des monographies antérieurement parues sur ce point ne peut nous donner une idée exacte de la situation actuelle. Cela est si vrai que sur le Continent on se figure souvent que l'Angleterre en est encore aujourd'hui au même point qu' il y a dix ou vingt ans. Les Anglais eux-mêmes ne cherchent pas à faire ressortir ce qui les avantage dans la lutte commerciale avec l'étranger, et déclarent qu'ils sont en retard pour l'enseignement professionnel. Nombre de mes interlocuteurs au cours de mon enquête m'ont tenu ce langage. On aurait grand tort de les croire." (Report by M. Pyfferoen to Belgian government). This opinion will be confirmed by a perusal of M. Vachon's report to the French government. "The English schools are of a higher grade than the Amsterdam school, for they will only receive students who have already finished

their elementary education, who have already acquired the elementary principles of art, of science and of literature. These schools are very prosperous and render great service to local industries. Day by day they grow and are constantly serving as models to new schools of the same nature that are being created in different parts of the three kingdoms." Indeed, if one is to believe M. Demolins, much of this blatant pessimism is not even sincere. "Des que les Anglais se sont aperçu des premiers symptômes d'envahissement du commerce allemand, leurs journaux ont poussé un cri d'avertissement, comme devaient le faire des sentinelles plus vigilantes que les nôtres: *Made in Germany!* Ce cri prouve seulement à quel point ils sont en éveil, à quel point ils sont sensibles à tout ce qui peut menacer, même de très loin, leur redoutable supériorité industrielle et commerciale, Notre erreur profonde est d'avoir pris ce cri d'avertissement pour un cri d'alarme jetant le sauve-qui-peut."

However, be that as it may, there can be no doubt that the native pessimism of the Saxon has in this as in most branches of our system of education led him to take an unreasonable and despondent view of the future.

Of course some of us must give up that belief in the divine monopoly of the Saxon. We have in the near past enjoyed what I venture to think was an unfair advantage over our rivals, and one that we could not hope to retain. The world-shrinking of the latter half of the nineteenth century gave England a peculiar but only temporary advantage over her commercial rivals. Matters are now righting themselves, an unstable is now giving place to a stable state of equilibrium.

Much of the confusion in which the discussion of English commercial education is at present carried on arises from a slipshod and unscientific use of the term

“commercial.” For example, the provision of courses in Shorthand, bookkeeping or commercial arithmetic seems sufficient sometimes to justify the use of the name “commercial education.” That this equipment of a lad with certain technical accomplishments should be dignified with the name commercial training, only serves to show how vague our ideas on this matter are. That the possibility of turning a primary school into a commercial school by adding certain technical accomplishments to the curriculum should occur to a level-headed community is proof not of educational enthusiasm only but also of misguided ingenuity. The curriculum in such a case is merely a more or less fortuitous concatenation of technical accomplishments that it is hoped may prove subsequently useful in office work. The absence of a solidarity of curriculum is the inevitable result of such patchwork.

A bright promising occupation here or a facile accomplishment there, appeals immediately, and in virtue of its monetary value to such pedagogues as fail to look for the underlying significance of the whole curriculum.

Such a school will turn out an unlimited supply of clerks with various useful accomplishments but directors of commerce must not be looked for here.

It cannot be too often asserted that commercial education is in no respect a matter for the primary school. All commercial training to be of any value postulates a sound liberal culture, which only a secondary training can fully develop. That a national system is not, however, complete without schools where such technical ability can be given to the primary scholar it is unnecessary to assert; the experience of Germany and France confirms us in this view.

There is, too, the higher type of commercial school

such as those of Antwerp and Leipsic, where young men of 18 to 21 years of age are trained in the higher technique of commerce, and where are turned out those future officers of the commercial army whose rôle in life it will be to add more and more conquered territory to their country.

But to my mind of far greater significance and suggestion to our people is the modern Commercial School of Germany, which is a recent creation but which bids fair to become a characteristic if not predominant feature of the modern German school system.

These schools are pure *Secondary Schools*, just as much as Rugby or Clifton are. This must be emphasised—their promoters deliberately state that the curriculum is designed primarily for the development of character but it is conditioned by the vocational aim of the school.

A headmaster of such a school told me that his hope, his ambition was to build up quite as fine men as those reared on a classical training. All that is good and ennobling in modern literature, in modern life, in modern ideas will be utilised for the building of character. No sordid aim shall colour the curriculum. We do not believe that the making of all good literature ended with the sack of Rome, nor do we so despise modern life as to deny to it all power of good training. It cannot be too often emphasized that from a pedagogic standpoint the past has no superiority over the present, but the present has an immense superiority over the past in its vocational value and its power of responsiveness to the personality of the pupil.

These German commercial schools are of recent date and are supported generally either by the Municipality or the Chamber of Commerce. The State has done little for them as yet. Saxony led the way in the establishment of such schools, but they are now spread-

ing throughout Germany. Recently a Commercial University has been inaugurated at Leipsic which it is intended shall be the final training-ground for the commercial secondary scholar. The Rhenish province is about to follow this example.

At Aix-la-chapelle the commercial school has been built and managed by a local Insurance Society, which thus dispenses its superfluous funds.

At Cologne the new commercial school cost the Municipality quarter of a million pounds sterling to build. It is a magnificent building fitted with every possible convenience for teaching, and with accommodation for 600 pupils.

The curriculum of these schools is intended to cover six years, but as the first three or four years' course is practically identical with that of the Realschule, it sometimes occurs that the commercial school is an outgrowth, so to speak of the Realschule course. Nevertheless, such a state of things is merely transitory. The tendency is for such to develop into full six year commercial school courses. The idea of a school possessing a variety of curricula is utterly repugnant to the German teacher.

The curriculum of such a school is based upon linguistic training. It is held that for modern life two methods of training are possible, either a linguistic training or a training in practical science. The latter is admittedly much the more expensive of those two, and so it is not adopted by the thrifty German. To an Englishman the fact that a scientific training constantly appeals to the pupils' self-activity and cultivates self-help and resourcefulness, would make hesitation almost impossible. To a German this cultivation of the child's self-activity does not appeal so much.

However, although the basis of the curriculum of the



German commercial school is a linguistic training, yet the curriculum includes both chemistry and physics, taken up, however, only during the last two years. The amount of practical work done by the boys is, I think, very little and this is taken up by a small proportion only of the pupils. Mathematics, commercial correspondence, Stenography and other characteristics of modern commerce are given their due in the school time table. The languages taught are English and French; and later on Spanish, Italian or Russian will be added as alternatives.

The following analysis of a German commercial school time table will illustrate much better than any description the solidarity of curriculum of which I have already said something.

## ANALYSIS OF TIME TABLE.

	VI	V	IV	III	II	I	TOTAL
Religion . . . . .	3	2	2	2	2	2	13
German . . . . .	5	5	5	4	3	3	25
French . . . . .	6	6	6	6	6	5	35
English . . . . .	—	—	—	5	4	4	13
History . . . . .	—	—	2	2	2	2	8
Geography . . . . .	2	2	2	2	2	2	12
Commercial Law . . . . .	—	—	—	—	1	1	2
Arithmetic . . . . .	5	5	4	2	2	2	20
Algebra . . . . .	—	—	—	2	1	2	5
Geometry . . . . .	—	—	2	2	2	2	8
Bookkeeping (Opt'l) . . . . .	—	—	—	—	1	2	3
Natural History . . . . .	2	2	2	2	—	—	8
Physics and Technology . . . . .	—	—	—	—	2	2	4
Chemistry and study of products . . . . .	—	—	—	—	2	2	4
Writing . . . . .	2	2	2	—	—	—	6
Stenography . . . . .	—	—	—	1	1	—	2
Freehand Drawing . . . . .	—	2	2	1	1	1	7
Gymnastics . . . . .	3	3	3	3	3	3	18
Singing . . . . .	2	2	1	1	1	1	8
<hr/> Total	<hr/> 30	<hr/> 31	<hr/> 33	<hr/> 35	<hr/> 36	<hr/> 36	<hr/> 201

This analysis brings out clearly the predominant culture-elements of the school curriculum. It differs from that of the Realschule, *i.e.*, the modern secondary school, mainly in devoting less time to drawing and natural history, and in introducing certain special elements such as commercial law and stenography into the curriculum.

The school fee is £4½ per annum, and the school hours vary from 30 to 36 hours per week.

The boys are all day scholars, though of course many come from a distance and live with friends or in lodgings; sometimes they even come from England.

There is little of the corporate life of the English public school seen here, due entirely, I think, to the lack of school games and athletics.

The classes generally consist of from fifteen to twenty scholars. The linguistic ability of the boys is really remarkable. Boys who have been learning English for only some twelve to fifteen months, converse with a ready fluency. I heard a recapitulatory lesson on the geography of Ireland. It was entirely in English. Bright and racy was the teaching. We touched on many things. Ethnological differences of Celt and Saxon, the feud of the Irish, Cromwell's doings, chief divisions of Ireland, Dublin—Phœnix Park, its notoriety, Killarney Lakes, and some account of the cause of Ireland's decadence, all were touched upon lightly, but clearly. In another room was a class of boys about seventeen years of age engaged in commercial correspondence in both English and French. These are the future correspondence clerks of Europe. Even in Italy, the German correspondence clerk is ousting the Italian, and a cry is heard similar to that so often heard in England. There can be no doubt that Germany is far ahead of England in this training in

modern languages which she gives her sons; indeed, there is scarcely a comparison possible between what is done at home and the magnificent linguistic training of the German school, built as it is upon a scientific basis throughout.

But the fact is, it is not the method so much as the equipment of the teacher that is wrong. Germany has long discarded the foreigner as the teacher of foreign languages, though I remember once coming across an Englishman who taught French in a German *Mittelschule*.

To-day every modern language teacher in Germany is a German. To acquire the foreign accent each of these teachers is sent at the cost of the Municipality to spend six weeks either in London or Paris. Five hundred marks per teacher is allocated for this purpose. Sometimes curious results occur. In a *Realgymnasium* I was listening to the lesson in English. I was struck by two things, first the extensive vocabulary of the boys; they were reading Tennyson's *Enoch Arden*. One of those beautiful Tennysonian similes occurred which cause even Englishmen to pause for thought; the German lad did not hesitate but paraphrased it with a ready ease that commanded the admiration of the critic. The second point that struck me even more was the very pronounced Cockney accent of the teacher, and of course, to a lesser extent of his pupils. I delicately inquired the cause of this, and was told in all seriousness that a friend had advised him that the best English was spoken in London streets. He had cultivated assiduously the London *bus-man* and with these results!

To return to the curriculum—one notices that but scant attention is given to those technical accomplishments which absorb so large a portion of the curriculum of the English commercial school. These schools do

not aim to turn out privates but officers for the German commercial army, and moreover cultured officers.

Further one does not find in the German school curriculum such subjects as—in drawing, the construction of geometrical figures and simple objects of daily use, geometrical drawing, sketching, india ink shading, and the elements of architectural drawing, which take up so much time in some commercial courses, and the utility of which for a commercial man may be doubted.

These German lads leave school with a colloquial knowledge of English and French, they have read some of the best authors in both languages, they know the geography of those lands and their colonies intimately. They have been trained in English and French methods of living and of commerce. They have received, too, a sound and comprehensive training in mathematics and in science, and the technical details of the higher branches of commerce have been made familiar to them, and with all this an endeavour, and, I believe, a successful endeavour has been made to counteract the narrowing tendency of a specialized system of training. After all, I see no reason whatever why a judicious selection of modern tools cannot carve out the same fine statuary as those older tools of our classical schools, venerable though the latter be with antiquity and polished by use.

Two matters will have to be faced, and if need be, fought. First the idea of the intrinsic superiority of a classical training in producing a cultured mind. I think that until we have killed outright this old dragon of Rome and Athens, we must be content to lag behind. The second matter is, that we must, in training our officers of commerce, get rid of that narrow, short-sighted view which confounds technical training with that which the true modern, the true commercial, school should provide.

There is no more vital matter in the whole of our educational system than this question of a modern school. The modern side of our public schools does not meet this need, neither do the so-called commercial schools of some of our larger towns. What England needs to-day is a school where her future merchants may be trained to become cultured resourceful men, prepared for this twentieth century, saturated with modern ideas at home in Berlin as in New York or Melbourne. Such a school must be, I think, a true secondary school with a purely pedagogic basis to its curriculum.

Let this basis of the curriculum be either scientific or linguistic, but let us have done once and for all with the idea that the curriculum of a commercial school needs no pedagogic basis. No kind of school needs it more. The cramping influence of a special training demands a curriculum broad and cultured.

We want our future merchants to leave school not only fitted with special weapons for the fight but with a wide tolerant outlook on life. Not German commerce alone should attract them, but German culture too.

There is, however, no need to despair of England. It must be remembered that to an ambitious German commercial man a knowledge of English is indispensable for English is to-day the commercial language of the world; whereas German is of no greater value to an Englishman than French. Then, too, of all modern languages English is probably the easiest to learn; so that it is hardly fair to compare the German lad's proficiency in English with the English lad's proficiency in German.

Finally let it not be forgotten that the same cries we so often hear are also heard in Germany. To quote,

“Un autre défaut propre aux Allemands et qui leur a fait souvent du tort au Transvaal est *l'ignorance des conditions du marché*. Ils importent des articles dont on n'a que faire là-bas et qui sont peu demandés. On peut relever aussi, comme des fautes, *l'insuffisance des emballages*, l'ignorance des modes, l'expédition, et l'oubli du caractère cosmopolite spécial du marché du Transvaal. Une autre cause d'insucces, pour le commerce allemand, est souvent le choix des agents auxquels *on ne laisse pas assez d'initiative*, et qui sont peu au courant du commerce et des besoins de la place. . . . Ces diverses raisons ont entravé jusqu' à ici l'essor du commerce allemand.” (M. Demolins quoting from a German official report.)

We need cultivate no despondency as regards technical education in England. England's real need to-day, her indispensable need, is a system of modern secondary schools. The child of the British workman has hitherto monopolised the attention of our reformers. So busy have we been in giving our working population a system of primary and technical education that we seem to have forgotten that there are other classes of the community who also deserve and need the fostering care and protection of the State. Why should the mercantile and professional classes alone be at the mercy of every charlatan in this matter of educating their children? No class in the community is more anxious to do its duty by the child, and nowhere is the *milieu* more responsive, yet the commonwealth which has provided for the lower classes an organised and state-controlled system of education, hitherto has done nothing to meet the very pressing needs of these classes, despite the fact that the bulk of the national wealth is held by them. But more than that, the State itself suffers. It is highly important indeed that the privates in the national army

should be trained ; it is vitally important that the officers should be highly trained.

Whilst recognising in a judicial spirit our national needs, let us beware of cultivating an excessive pessimism. A cheerful optimism should govern our counsels. England is not as yet the land of a lost cause. *Le bon Dieu* when distributing national characteristics hid away in the casket of the Anglo-Celt a gem brighter than all other jewels,—a little gift apparently, but of infinitely greater value than the coal-fields and gold-fields that stud the British Empire ; a gift which foreigners quickly recognise and vainly endeavour to cultivate.

It is the gift of individuality, of self-help, of independence of character. In Europe the individual depends on the State, in England the State depends on the individual. This characteristic explains the possession by Europe of highly organised and comprehensive systems of training ; it explains, too, the absence of such systems in England and America. The Straits of Dover are much wider than the Atlantic Ocean. For England to imitate or even envy the German school system would be indeed foolish. A great people becomes greater not by modification but by development. We must work out our own salvation in our own way.

We shall become the imperial people of the future not by cultivating Teuton characteristics (admirable though they be, *in Germany*) but by a fuller and richer development of those powers of initiative and resource peculiar to us as a people.

## THE FRENCH BACCALAUREAT

THE centre of gravity of the pedagogic world has, it has been asserted, passed from Germany to France. Without accepting altogether this assertion, it may confidently be argued that some of the attention which English educators have devoted to German pedagogy might profitably be diverted to a fuller knowledge and a more complete study of the practical details and the ideals of the French system of training. That system is so different in ideals and workings from our own, that a study must at least widen our horizon, even though it may not prove a sure guide. So centralized and organised is the French system that it gave opportunity for an impromptu joke that has become historic. To those who advocate the complete State controlled system of education no system affords a fuller and more apt illustration than that of France. To others, to those who fear the ill-effects of such a control, no system perhaps accentuates them more clearly than this system of French education. As affording an apt object lesson it is proposed to make some observations on the French Baccalauréat.

The French Baccalauréat is the leaving examination of the French secondary school. There are in France



two types of secondary schools—the public and the private.

The public secondary schools are the lycées supported, controlled, and officered by the State ; and the communal colleges, which are secondary schools of a somewhat lower grade, and receiving public local, as well as State support.

These public schools are purely secular, and the teachers lay persons.

In competition with these public schools we find the private secondary schools mainly in the hands of the Church and taught by clerics. These receive no public aid of any kind.

In all these schools fees are charged, and in the case of the lycées the annual income is more than sufficient to meet the expenditure. Moreover, all these schools by scholarships, etc., endeavour to assist the poorer parents in giving their children a secondary education. These French secondary schools are all organised as boarding schools, though a number of day scholars also attend them, these generally dining at school but living at home.

It is not proposed here to describe in detail the organisation and curriculum of these schools, it must suffice to say that the lycée is generally a boarding school of some 500 boys with about forty teachers.

The discipline is confessedly rigid, the surveillance extremely personal and minute, and the atmosphere generally of a distinctly monastic though not necessarily religious character.

The avowed aim of all these French secondary schools is to train boys for the first examination of the university of France—the Baccalauréat.

For the lycée this is the prescribed curriculum, for

the private school it is not prescribed but the exigencies of competition compel it.

The course of the lyc ee lasts generally from 8 to 16 or 18 years of age. Boys on entering are supposed to know something of the elements of reading and writing—nothing more.

The first three years of school life are taken up in covering what is practically the curriculum of the primary school.

There is very little passing of pupils from the primary to the secondary school in France. The educational ladder is evidently not the ideal of French pedagogues.

Of those boys who enter the lyc ee only a certain proportion complete the course and proceed to the Baccalaur at.

Let us briefly glance at the requirements for this examination, but before doing so it will be well to state that the present requirements are of no great antiquity, dating in fact from 1890; and, further, that recently a commission has sat and reported upon the whole subject of these requirements.

It is perhaps unnecessary to point out that owing to the extremely centralized and bureaucratic character of French education the school is extremely sensitive to political changes.

The curriculum of the school changes almost as rapidly as the government. The value of the school as a political engine is as well recognised in France as in Germany, though hitherto no French minister has so ruthlessly avowed that fact as the German Emperor.

Further, the French government has long recognised the duty of the school in preparing for life. They have long held a healthy horror of the fatuous policy of

turning farmers and mechanics into quill-drivers. They have with characteristic enthusiasm and persistent endeavour introduced this and that element into the school course, both primary and secondary, hoping thereby to vivify the curriculum and to bridge the gap between school and life. The change needed is, however, much more profound than that. It is a change of spirit, of atmosphere, not homeopathic doses of pedagogic nostrums, that is needed. Agriculture may be taught and manual training may be added, but until a revolution in the whole attitude of the school to life is effected these will prove futile.

The curriculum of the school must be a real one, and one based upon experience. So long as formal studies maintain their supremacy over primary and secondary school so long will this detachment, this exclusiveness of the school from life be evident.

Until it is recognised unreservedly that school is not a place for the cultivation of any form of mental gymnastics—that it is not a place for cultivating this or that faculty, but that it is a place for the unfolding of character by means of a training in self consciousness this monastic character of the school will continue.

Education is a growth, not a process. It is an unfolding of character—a spiritual growth from within, not an absorption from without. In truth, it is assimilation not accretion. It is a realising of the factors of existence—a fulfilling of the possibilities of life.

To return: the lycée is divided into 10 classes. A boy as a rule graduates from one class to the next annually.

The curriculum is practically fixed by the Baccalauréat. The course of the lycée thus fixed is the same for all the boys up to and including the last class but one (*i.e.*

the Rhetoric class) which class is reached at about the age of 16 or 17 years. Here comes the first examination for the Baccalauréat, which is the same for all candidates.

The subjects of this examination are :—Latin, Greek, French, modern languages, mathematics, geography, history, morals, philosophy, drawing, gymnastics and military exercises.

We might suppose from this syllabus that the examination was an unusually stiff test for boys of 16 or 17 years of age, but it is said that the examination is by no means so difficult as its syllabus would lead us to infer.\*

Having successfully negotiated this first examination the student in his last year is allowed a choice of three branches—mathematics, philosophy, or science, and according as he chooses and qualifies so is his diploma inscribed. This course which has been described is what may be termed the normal course of the lycée but side by side the lycée, has a concurrent curriculum—the so-called modern secondary course.

This curriculum was designed to meet those modern needs to which the French pedagogic mind appears extremely susceptible.

This modern course of the lycée is closely similar in outline to the course of the German Realschule.

The lycée, like the English public school, attempts concurrent curricula, and the results are in some respects equally unfortunate. Any school that attempts to serve two masters only illustrates the Biblical truth. There is a lack of solidarity in the school curriculum which is accentuated in school life and is fatal to all high purposes.

This modern secondary course of the lycée was designed, it was said, for "average minds," not for bright intellects!

Although modern in matter it is to be classical in spirit. An attempt was to be made to give the pupil the classical atmosphere by means of *translations* of the great classical writers; and to increase the historic perspective of the pupils a course in State law, national economy and practical morals is added!!

One cannot help feeling that were the French people as humorous as they are logical, this idea of a classical atmosphere to a modern training would have died an early death.

The basis of this curriculum is evidently modern languages, and in both German and English the training is extensive and includes a study of the works of the chief writers of Germany and England. The complete programme for the modern course of the lycée is as follows:—

German.	Practical Morals.
English.	State Law and National
French.	Economy.
Mathematics.	History of Art and
Geography and History.	Civilisation.
Natural History.	Philosophy,
Physics and Chemistry.	Drawing.

After being successful at the first examination of this special course, and which constitutes a special Baccalauréat, the pupil is allowed for his last examination a choice between mathematics, philosophy and science, and if successful his special diploma is so inscribed.

All these various examinations for the Baccalauréat are conducted by means of written exercises, and are

held by the University officials—that is the officials of the various faculties of the University. The teachers themselves take no part whatever either in the conduct of the examinations or in the drawing up of the syllabus. The *brevet scolaire*, or school record of a pupil kept by his teachers may, if the pupil so desire, be handed in to the examiners, but serious objections to this system have been made by French educators.\*

Thus at the age of 17 or 18 years the successful scholar of the lycée finds himself on leaving the school in possession of a diploma which is the “*open sesame*” to every liberal profession and all social prestige in France.

Moreover, he is excused two years’ military service.

In Prussia, as is well known, a similar examination with closely similar privileges exists.

This is the “*Abiturienten Examen.*” The subjects of this examination for the pupil of the gymnasium are Religion, German, Latin, Greek, French, history and geography, mathematics and physics, with as optional subjects English and Hebrew.

The differences between this examinations and the French examination are :—

1. The Prussian examination is not a University examination, though it admits to the Universities.
2. It is conducted mainly by the teachers of the pupils themselves, not by outsiders, who, however able, are not able to get the best out of the pupil.
3. The Prussian examination is an incident in the academic career of the pupil, in France it is generally the culmination of his academic career. The tension of the examination is much less felt by the Prussian than by the French pupil.

\* See “*Les études classiques et la démocratie,*” by A. Fouillér.

It is proposed now to discuss some of the social effects of this system of State examinations in France.

However much one may feel disposed to criticise the value of such a uniform and indeed stereotyped system of State examinations, its power in securing a uniformity of efficiency in certain directions in the schools is unquestioned. Not only are all the public secondary schools compelled to fashion their curriculum to this one end, but by the force of competition the private schools are likewise compelled to bend their main energies in this direction. It is true that the private clerical schools are doing much in other directions in preparing young men for commerce and industry, yet the maintenance of public favour compels them to place the Baccalauréat at the head of their curriculum.

It is important for us to realize the extent of the power of the Baccalauréat over the French secondary school, public and private.

It is impossible for any school of prestige or ambition to escape this power. This power is comprehensive and thorough. It is autocracy of the most effective kind.

Individuality of school and pupil cannot be tolerated. They must all conform to the model.

A very interesting experiment is just now being made to organise a French secondary school on entirely new lines and with new ideals. It will be interesting to observe how far this school will prove a success despite the fact that its pupils cannot presumably enter the liberal professions owing to the dethroning of the Baccalauréat.

The Baccalauréat has in effect secured that uniformity so dear to the French official mind. It has forbidden all deviation from the narrow and straight road that

leads to social prestige—I will not say—success in France.

The social consequences of the Baccalauréat are however of vastly greater significance.

Let us ponder for a moment over the fact that this democratic Republic of France has deliberately erected a social barrier within its society, that is in some respects unequalled by any barrier in English, American or even German society. The equality of French democracy is legal not social. In Germany under happy though occasional conditions, the fixing of a child's future may be delayed until he is 12 years of age. In France the future sphere of activity is fixed when, at 8 years of age, he enters the lycée. This barrier—the Baccalauréat—is practically impassable.

Without it the pupil can never hope to enter any of the liberal professions or the higher strata of society; with it he dare not enter industry, commerce or the lower strata of society. French society is divisible into two classes only—absolutely separate and detached, namely—the possessors and the non-possessors of this diploma.

Without the Baccalauréat the youth who has discovered professional ability is helpless. He is probably too old to begin again at the bottom of the educational system and without the diploma no intellectual skill will secure for him the first steps in the professional ladder.

He must plod on, knowing that the social community, the State, has placed an effective bar to the dedication of his gifts to the service of the State. The French boy's future sphere of activity is effectually mapped out when he is 8 years old by his parents, and from this decision, which is in effect a life sentence, there is no appeal.



Though he may develop the commercial ability of a Rothschild or the engineering genius of a de Lesseps, he must content himself within the sphere mapped out for him by his parents.

Moreover, this system deprives the mercantile and commercial classes of France of that higher culture which is their privilege, no less than it is that of their professional brothers. The prosperity of France is surely in some respects, due to its mercantile and commercial classes. Then are they not entitled to that higher culture and those liberal studies which it is the privilege of a State University to dispense to all citizens? It is a loss to intellectual France when an increasing proportion of its citizens is cut off from the sources of the higher culture, especially when it is remembered that the prosperity of the whole social fabric is dependent upon the well-being of that class. Intellectual France has no right to arrogate these privileges to itself.

But the system curses the class it strives to bless. So many are the privileges, social and professional, offered by the Baccalauréat that, year by year, it draws a greater number of victims to its folds. "Chaque année treize à quatorze mille jeunes Français aspirent au diplôme et presque tous avec la pensée qu'une fois ce diplôme en poche, ils seraient 'dishonorés s'ils faisaient de l'agriculture, de l'industrie ou du commerce.' La progression des candidats au baccalauréat moderne devient surtout effrayante; en 1892, 1837; en 1893, 2062; en 1894, 2811; en 1895, 3071; en 1897, 3433." ("Les études classiques," by A. Fouillée.)

For they are victims. The number of the uneducated proletariat the "*declassés*" in France (and in Germany too) is assuming most alarming proportions.

The professions are all fearfully overcrowded, and for

government employment of any kind the competition is extraordinary.

This system of a State examination, with its syllabus drawn up by Government officials, is almost certain to be specially predisposed to the manufacture of officials. "Non seulement il y a des prolétaires dans toutes les carrières libérales, mais ils y sont légion ; médecins, avocats, magistrats, professeurs, ingénieurs, officiers, fonctionnaires, employés, artistes, écrivains, étudiants, politiciens, journalistes, &c. Si l'Université crée 1,000 licenciés par an, il n'y a que 200 ou 300 places vacantes pour eux dans les lycées : les autres ont pour but la dispense de deux ans de service militaire. L'école polytechnique a de 1000 à 1700 candidats pour 250 places ; l'école centrale produit chaque année de 800 à 900 ingénieurs, dont les Ponts et Chaussées et les Compagnies de chemins de fer retiennent quelques-uns, le reste doivent se caser dans l'industrie, où ils gagnent moins que certains ouvriers d'élite. Dans l'enseignement primaire sur 150,000 instituteurs ou institutrices ayant leur diplôme, il y en a 100,000 dans une gêne très voisine de la misère ; il y a 15,000 candidats pour 150 places vacantes dans les écoles de Paris ; les autres, par milliers, vont aux magasins, hommes ou femmes, et celles-ci hélas ! parfois à la prostitution. A la préfecture de police il y a eu en 1896 pour 40 places 2,300 candidats ; à l'Assistance publique on compte 250 candidats pour 8 emplois à donner.

"A Paris, sur 2500 médecins, la moitié ne gagnent pas de quoi se tirer d'affaire et se rejettent sur 'les besognes qui compromettent ;' ce qui sera bien pis si l'enseignement moderne ou peut-être même primaire se voit jamais ouvrir l'accès des Facultés. C'est alors que les 'dehottomies' les avortements, les complicités d'empoisonne-

ment, le charlatanisme et le crime médical viendront grossir encore les statistiques déjà peu rassurantes.

“ Sur 3,000 avocats, il y en a tout au plus 20 qui réussissent. Les juges de paix, presque tous licenciés ou docteurs en droit, végètent misérablement, quand ils n'ont pas de fortune personnelle ; et de même l'officier pauvre qui n'a pas atteint le grade de commandant. M. Henry Bérenger, dans la *Conscience Nationale* cite des chiffres tirés des statistiques officielles ; le mal est indiscutable. Ils provient de la course au fonctionnarisme, de l'imprudence générale avec laquelle on s'engage dans les carrières libérales, impassés pour beaucoup, enfers pour tant d'autres.” (“ Les Études Classiques,” by A. Fouillée).

In Germany, as is well known, the same state of things exists. These young men with their University degrees are crowded out of the only spheres of life for which they have been ostensibly trained, and they are compelled by 'caste' to starve rather than turn to agriculture, commerce, or industry for that livelihood which their profession denies them. They are indeed “ *déclassés*.” “ To work I cannot, to beg I am ashamed.” Hence, as the Kaiser would say, springs all the social sores, socialism anarchy, and the gutter journalism of to-day.

Much of this state of things in France is attributed by French writers to the introduction of the so-called modern course of the lycée. This special Baccalauréat is, it is said, both easy and pedagogically unsound. It is necessary to revert to the more difficult and purely classical course of old days. It is wrong to encourage these young men of only mediocre ability to persist in an unwise ambition. Let us teach them rather to be content with the humbler spheres of activity, such as commerce and industry afford. Much better would it be to organise a course for such young men specially fitting them for the

business of life, but without the Baccalauréat and its privileges at the end. The modern course of the lycée should be cut out, and this work handed over to the higher primary school and special technical schools.

The Baccalauréat must be reserved for the intellectual élite of French youth, whose training should be of a severely classical and philosophical character. It must be recognised that for the intellectual aristocracy of any country the only training that will suffice is one based largely upon a study of the classical tongues and imbued with the philosophical spirit. This claim for the supremacy of the classical tongues in the training of the secondary scholar has nowhere been urged with more force and eloquence than in France. Upon the decision of this proposition depends the curriculum of the secondary school.

This matter of curriculum has excited equal attention in Germany and America. In England, too, some attention has been given to it, and one finds a writer of the highest standing calmly assuming that it is impossible for a man to be really cultured who is—we will not say ignorant of Latin and Greek—but who has not received a training in the classical tongues. Without unduly emphasising an unfortunate aspect of such an assertion, let us look a little more fully than we have yet done into this matter of curriculum. We shall find as a consequence of our conception of the task of education, that the true basis of any system of training is not a study of old world tongues, but a scientific study of the material and spiritual world of to-day.

Education is an organising of experience. By education the world is made intelligible. Man must, in order to be able to realise his *milieu*, to organise his experience,

know and understand all the aspects of the world around him, physical and social.

Without such knowledge there can be no right judgment. Life will prove a series of chances. A sound knowledge implies a right judgment. The more complete man's knowledge of his environment the sounder will be his judgment. It is not the power of willing merely that needs training, it is the ready responsiveness to all human and physical influences that must be trained, so that man's inherent power of judgment may be turned to right judgment. It is not lack of judgment but wrong judgment that is to be provided against. No course of classical tongues will produce this power of right judgment ; it is not advocates, products of a system of forensic gymnastics that are needed, but judges who know and can appreciate every factor, material and spiritual, in the problem. It is knowledge, not skill, that is needed. No one can form a complete or sure judgment unless he be cognisant of and can appreciate every element in, the equation. A mind skilled in Latin verse is no use *per se* in solving a quadratic or making a pump.

Education consists in making the environment of the individual intelligible to him. Unless so made intelligible the world is full of ghostly noises, strange phantasies, and crude superstitions. The judgment is bound to be wrong, for the phenomena of life are outside the circle of realised experience ; the individual is unable to interpret them in terms of experience.

If this is so it is evident that the two essentials of training are a knowledge of the physical and of the human elements in the environment. In other words the two indispensable bases of a liberal culture of any kind are :—

## 1. Scientific Studies.

## 2. Humanistic Studies.

These humanistic studies must evidently be of such a nature as to make intelligible to the individual the social society of which he is a unit. It is to place him *en rapport* with the present, not the past, that these humanistic studies are necessary. To make the present intelligible necessitates a study of the past. That is indeed true. What we have been, however, busily doing, was to study the past as an end, not as a means to an end. We must study the past only for the sake of the present.

The mode of living, range of thought, nature of beliefs in the past have no intrinsic value to the pupil. Their relative value to him is in proportion to their relationship to the present.

The old pedagogic idea of "mental gymnastics" must go together with that pernicious doctrine of "not what you teach, but how you teach is of value."

This last accounts for nearly all the formalism, and much of the futility, of present systems of training.

The purpose of education is not to develop mental gymnasts but thinkers. No ready facility in mental operations will compensate for a lack of knowledge. The first essential of success in life is to know one's self; to know in every detail that circle of which the ego is the centre. We go on teaching Latin paradigms and Greek irregulars under the idea that we are training certain so-called "faculties" of the mind. It may be so, but the whole is a very useless proceeding, and absolutely futile if regarded seriously as a training for life. How absurd is it to try to fill our pupils' heads (fortunately Nature forbids that) with these quaint facts, whilst the world of to-day in which they move and have their being, remains

absolutely unintelligible to them. They wander through life like disembodied ghosts, learning by painful experience rather than by skilful training, the realities of existence. How does it help them to know something of the realities of life two thousand years ago? The times have changed, life has become infinitely more subtle and complex. The world we live in is a much bigger and fuller world than that old world. The problems of life then are not those now. What interested the Athenians appeals only to human anachronisms to-day.

It is these human anachronisms that our schools are turning out to-day, and it is time this manufacture of spurious Etruscan ware were stopped. Moreover this old world factory retains the exclusive atmosphere of monastic times—it and life lie far apart.

Our school should turn out intellects cognisant with the world of to-day, saturated with the modern spirit. Their pupils should be so trained that their outlook on life is modern not mediæval. Only then may we look for the truly cultured citizen. There is no other way of training the ripe judgment. This way alone may the intellectual aristocracy of the future be trained.

The humanistic studies of the school should be of such a character as to make the social life of to-day perfectly comprehensible. All in the past that elucidates the present, and what of it does not? must be utilised for training. But the relative attitude of the school towards the past and the present will be changed. The tyranny of Rome and Athens over the school will disappear. The complete supremacy of the present over the past will be recognised.

These old civilizations, with all their beauty of form and expression, will be studied as steps to the present, not as ideals to be carried into modern life.

The scientific studies will give the pupil power to realise the material world of which he is the centre. Such a training will develop what may be termed the scientific attitude towards the phenomena of life. By this is meant a certain critical questioning of phenomena, a certain power of appreciating the significance of events. It is only by developing this attitude that man may become the master of circumstances.

Thus alone will man be able to utilise phenomena for the general purposes of the race. It is lack of this power of realising the significance of events, which lack is due to ignorance, that causes much of the apparent perversity of human effort.

If our conception of the purpose of education is a just one then it becomes clear that to restrict the syllabus of the Baccalauréat to a training in classical tongues would only serve to perpetuate the manufacture of anachronisms. It is also clear that it is not a modification but a revolution of curriculum that is needed. There must be a complete change in the spirit and ideals of the secondary school. The natural and physical sciences, instead of being *additions*, must be the *basis* of the curriculum. Of course a subsidiary concurrent curriculum based on the classical tongues, and designed for the manufacture of archaeologists and historians might likewise be attempted, but the philosophical, the humanistic, course of the secondary school must have as its foundation stone a training in the phenomena of nature and life. Thus alone can we hope to train really cultured citizens, full souled intellects.



## THE KINDERGARTEN AT HOME AND ABROAD.

“You are fond of children and learned in the new system of teaching them,” said Mr. Jackson.

“Very fond of them,” replied Phœbe, “but I know nothing of teaching beyond the pleasure I have in it, and the pleasure it gives me when they learn. Perhaps your overhearing my little scholars sing some of their lessons has led you so far astray as to think me a good teacher? Ah, I thought so! No, I have only read and been told about that system. It seems so pretty and pleasant, and to treat them so like the merry robins they are that I took up with it in my little way.”

“Shall we make a man of him?” repeated the doctor.

“I had rather be a child,” replied Paul.

*Charles Dickens.*

WHEN the history of education in England comes to be written, no name will fill so worthy a place as Charles Dickens. It has been left for a distinguished Canadian educator to do justice to the educational work of Dickens.

Endowed with an intense sympathy for children and weaklings, Dickens went forth as a knight errant with no weapon but his pen to right the wrong. He exposed with the relentlessness of a surgeon the social sores, the parasitical pests, and the solemn frauds that fasten and fatten on our common life.

He was the children's advocate and right nobly did he acquit himself. He saw even more clearly perhaps than

Froebel himself the child's right to childhood. He proclaimed it on the housetops. He poured his finest contempt, his keenest sarcasm on the Blimbers and Creakles of life. He saw that education, true education, is a training in doing, in will power, in character. To bring up a child like a hothouse plant, forced, and secluded from life, was to him not a mistake but a stupid crime. God sent children into the world to live—not to exist. It is as wicked to rob these little ones of their right to live as it is to hide the sunlight from them when living. Those fearful relics of mediæval thought, such as the doctrine of original sin and child depravity, hung like a great cloud over the childhood of Dickens' day, but as an old world prophet he lifted his hands and the cloud disappeared from the English school, let us hope never to return. It was the right of children to the sunlight too that Dickens urged with all the eloquence of his soul, until at last it dawned upon our parents that children were not devils to be whipped into saints. How eloquently does he plead for the natural freedom of childhood!

“Even the sun-burned faces of gipsy children, half naked though they be, suggest a drop of comfort. It is a pleasant thing to see that the sun has been there; to know that the air and light are on them every day; to feel that they *are* children, and lead children's lives; that if their pillows be damp it is with the dews of heaven, and not with tears; that the limbs of their girls are free, and that they are not crippled by distortions, imposing an unnatural and horrible penance upon their sex; that their lives are spent from day to day, at least among the waving trees, and not in the midst of dreadful engines, which make young children old before they know what childhood is, and give them the exhaustion and infirmity of age, without, like age, the privilege to die. God send

that old nursery tales were true, and that gipsies stole such children by the score!"—[*Nicholas Nickleby.*]

Yes, Dickens was England's greatest educator, though he never wrote pedagogic essays or sat on a Royal Commission. He did more than that, he pulled open the shutters and let the beautiful sunlight into the school-room to play mid the golden tresses of the children. Froebel prompted him,\* it is true, but the real power behind Dickens' advocacy of childhood was his own strong human heart.

But my purpose now is not to speak to you of the work of Dickens, nor to plead again, fifty years later, for this free childhood which Dickens claimed for children.

I do not intend putting in a claim for the Kindergarten: that would indeed be too belated.

The question of the advantages or disadvantages of the Kindergarten system is no longer a question of practical pedagogy, and merits no more discussion than the sphericity of the earth or the law of gravity. The person who questions the efficacy of the Kindergarten system of training children confesses himself an anachronism, and merits as much consideration as a "legitunist."

The world revolves too rapidly and life is consequently too short for academic discussions such as those suggested in "Alice in Wonderland."

Indeed the only serious objection urged against the Kindergarten now-a-days is generally that of expense, and there can be no doubt that under the present financial conditions of our schools the true Kindergarten is largely an ideal; nevertheless much can be and is being done by our best teachers to make their schools all that

\* was in 1855 that Dickens wrote his essay on the Kindergarten,

Froebel and Dickens considered they should be. But even on this point economy, as is so often the case, probably spells extravagance in the end.

“Nothing is too expensive that really improves education, for such improvement cuts off all the waste product of society—the defective and degenerate, the cripple, thief, and fool, and saves millions upon millions now spent in maintaining or restraining these injurious classes. Not only that, but it as steadily develops the working value of humanity, turning out more and more vigorous and original thinkers and doers to multiply our wealth and pleasure. Grant the usefulness of improved methods in education and they can never be expensive. Even to-day the school children become a far better class of citizens than the street arabs who do not go to school; and such school advantages as we have lower our expense in handling crime and disease. When we provide for every child the very best education—real education of body, brain, and soul—with the trained hand and eye to do what the trained will and judgment command, it is difficult to see where the ‘criminal class’ is to come from.”—[*C. P. Gilman “Concerning Children.”*]

The spirit upon which the teacher’s work to-day is based is that of real love and respect for the individuality of the child. Once that spirit has entered the school then all things are possible.

So this morning, after a short discussion of the methods of the Kindergarten, I propose that we, profitably perhaps, employ ourselves in seeing what our neighbours are doing in the development of the Kindergarten, and for this purpose we will avail ourselves of a very valuable paper written by an American educator, Dr. Hailmann which contains descriptions of the aims and methods of these schools, written by the teachers themselves, and

then perhaps we may form some idea as to how we compare with our neighbours in this work.

It is five years ago since the examination of infant schools was abolished; but such a system dies hard, and even to-day sometimes the success of the school is estimated by the proficiency of the scholars in the three R's more than by the intelligence, the tone, and the pleasure the school engenders in its little ones. Some 17 years ago, Jules Ferry, speaking of the French infant schools, said :

“ The success of the directress of an *école maternelle* is, therefore, measured, not by the mass of imparted knowledge, not by the number and length of lessons, but rather by the sum of good influences with which the child is surrounded, by the pleasure it feels in the school, by the habits of order, neatness, politeness, attention, intellectual activity it acquires there, as it were, in play. Consequently, the directress should aim to promote to the primary school, not so many children already well advanced in instruction, but rather children well prepared to receive instruction. All exercises of the *école maternelle* should accord with this principle; they should favour the development of the various faculties of the child without fatigue, without compulsion or excessive application; they should make him love the school and give him at an early period a taste for work by never requiring of him a kind of work incompatible with the weakness and instability of tender years. The end in view, while considering the diversity of temperaments, the precocity of some and the slowness of others, is *not* to bring all to a certain grade of skill in reading, writing, and arithmetic, but it is that they know well what they may know, that they love their tasks, their games, their lessons of any kind; it is

particularly that they may not have a dislike for those first school exercises which would so readily become distasteful if the patience, the versatility, the ingenuous affection of the teacher did not continue to vary them, to enliven them, to get from them or attach to them some pleasure for the child. Good health, the senses already trained by a series of little games and experiments calculated to educate them ; childlike, but distinct and clear ideas on the first rudiments of what will become primary instruction ; a start in the formation of habits and tastes on which the school may base its regular teaching ; a taste for gymnastics, singing, drawing, pictures, stories, eagerness to listen, to look, to observe, to imitate, to ask and answer questions ; a certain power of attention resulting from docility, confidence, and good disposition ; finally, an awakened intelligence and a soul open to all good moral impressions ; these are effects and results to be asked of the école maternelle, and if the child comes from it to the primary school with such a preparation, it matters little whether it has acquired a few pages more or less of the syllabus."

It is sometimes urged against the Kindergarten system of teaching a child through play, that anything lightly gained is lightly lost, and that children taught on this plan never really know anything. As Madame de Stael says, "The education that takes place through amusement dissipates thought ; labour of some sort is one of the great aids of Nature. The mind of the child ought to accustom itself to the labour of study, just as our soul to suffering. You will teach a multitude of things to your child by means of pictures and cards, but you will not teach him how to learn."

Ah, Madame, we of to-day see that though effort and

difficulty and trials may be good to man to open up the deeper grit in his character, yet that they are not indispensable even to man's salvation; infinitely less so are they to the child's!

Think you it is the kindly or the wise part to place difficulties in the paths of these little ones, to cloud over the bright sunshine (all too transient) of their childhood, and to make Education, which is to be their saviour, appear to them as an ugly, spiteful sprite, ever ready to cause them to stumble and weep? Such conceptions of child training are the relics of that asceticism which ostracised the Maypole and expurgated Shakespeare.

It is, I think, our duty as teachers to study our pupils to try to see the world from *their* point of view—not ours. Children form the majority of our population and therefore should have the rights of a majority. We adults have no right whatever to force our ideas of religion and morals down the throats of our children, and to “*discipline*” them as we so often try to do. “All control is wrong that attempts to fetter the child with a man's thoughts, and a man's motives, or a man's creed. Herein lies the greatest danger. It is a fatal blunder to rob a child of its childhood. We interfere too often with a child's spontaneity by checking its plays or by rousing it from its reveries. Teachers should remember that what would be folly and indolence in them may be absolutely essential for the highest development of the child physically, intellectually and morally. A child may be injured morally by stopping its play with the sand on the seashore, or its ramble among the flowers, or its apparently idle dream as it lies looking at the clouds, to force it to listen to religious exercises it does not understand. The music of the

birds, and bees is more likely to arouse its spiritual nature than the music of an organ. He is the best teacher who most clearly remembers the feelings and thoughts of his own boyhood. We cannot force maturity on a child in feeling, motive, thought or action without making it a hypocrite and we can make nothing worse out of it. The darkest hour of a child's life is the hour when it draws a curtain over the windows of its heart to shut out mother or teacher, and deceit usurps the place of honest frankness."—[*Jas L. Hughes.*]

I wish now to discuss very briefly the ideas underlying the various gifts of Froebel, of which there are, as you know, twenty:\* These twenty gifts have been classified in five groups, of which the first group is made up of the first six gifts, and in which definite, clear conceptions of Form and Number are taught the child. Thus the first gift teaches:—colour, direction, use of terms for certain properties or qualities, such as *hard*, *soft*; and organised use of the limbs. The second gift teaches:—form, contrast, similarity, and dissimilarity (Sphere, Cube and Cylinder): and right use of language.

The third (cubes) and fourth (bricks) gift teach number and the beginning of symmetry and design. The fifth and sixth gifts extend the child's ideas of Form and Number. The second group is made up of the gifts 7, 8, 9, and 10, and deals with surfaces, and proceeds from block-laying and tablet-laying up to drawing with a pencil on square ruled-paper. Gifts eight and nine deal with stick and ring laying, which form a valuable link between the square and triangular tablets and the art of drawing. One notices how the child is interested first of all in solids, then in surfaces and

\* See Report of Commissioner U.S.A. 1896-7, Vol. 1, p. 899.



angles, and finally his muscles are trained by drawing over and through squares on paper.

Thus the Kindergarten is the proper foundation for manual training, and it is in these early days that the skilled artisan of later days is formed. "Two weeks' practice of holding objects in his right hand will make the infant in his first year right-handed for life."

The next group is formed of the eleventh and twelfth gifts, in which the pupil's muscular training is continued, and his knowledge of surfaces extended by outlining objects by means of embroidery—first by perforating, and then by using the needle. The latter exercise, I need hardly point out, is the basis upon which all the needlework training of later years is based. The next group comprises gifts 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18, and covers:—

13. Paper-cutting (strips).

14. Mats.

15. Laths.

16. Jointed lath.

17. Paper-twining.

18. Paper-folding.

This group forms the natural basis of the arts of plaiting and weaving.

The last group is made up of gifts 19 and 20. In gift 19, corks and pieces of wire or sticks being used, solid forms are built up. In the 20th gift, these solids are modelled in clay or wax. The Kindergarten is a place for training the mind through the eyes and hands.

Of the muscular training developed in the Kindergarten it is difficult to speak too highly. Were our children's muscles properly developed and trained, we should see less of those slouching loafers on the corners, whose fingers are all thumbs, and whose existence is one of

the heaviest indictments of the modern system of training.

But I have taken up already too much of my time in discussing general tendencies. Let us now cross the Straits of Dover, and observe what our rivals are doing in the development of the Kindergarten. We shall find that the Kindergartens are largely voluntary in Northern Europe and Italy, and there we shall find that they have developed most nearly in accordance with Froebel's original ideas.

A very general plan of Kindergarten is one in which there is a duplicate set of rooms, one set being the ordinary class-rooms, and the other set being play-rooms, where the children play various games, sing, march, and drill, and out in the playground we have the garden plots of the children. In the Continental Kindergarten schools the dual Kindergarten desks have become obsolete, and are supplanted by tables, around which the children sit, and by means of which it is considered that the spirit of co-operation and social dependence is increased.

In Germany the most interesting Kindergarten is the Pestalozzi-Froebel House at Berlin, which was begun in 1870 by Madam Schrader, an old pupil of Froebel's, as a private school, but which in 1880 developed into a public school, controlled by an association of wealthy Germans interested in the development of Froebel's work. We are told that in this school a special attempt has been made to preserve and extend the home influence and training; for example, the children are taught the usual home occupations, the little girls make their beds, and clean the windows, and grow their own flowers, whilst the boys make rugs, picture frames and playthings. A sketch of a day in this institution is given by Bertha Meyer, author of "From the Cradle to the School."

Thus, speaking of the babies' class, she says: "We notice that the playthings of the nursery are not banished from their room. We see here dolls, dolls' beds and carriages, cooking utensils, a Noah's Ark, hollow forms, for the sand games, a railroad, and many other things. Frequently they may use these things as they please, yet at other times much is prudently withheld. One of their regular occupations is stringing of beads. During this time they are told a story, or sing a song, or give vent to their own fancies in free conversation. Here a bead strung on a thread plays varied parts. Now it is a bell swinging to and fro, now a locomotive puffing noisily away. The various colours of the beads enable the children to discover many instructive distinctions among them. Thus they vary song and work until the time is past. Another favourite occupation is the sand game. The children fashion, with the help of their hollow sand forms, or suitable kitchen utensils, a variety of things from moist sand; cooking ranges, all sorts of cakes and pastry; or they make little gardens which they adorn with real flowers or pine sprays, or with paper trees and birds which the upper divisions have made for them. Another occupation is the drawing out of threads from coarse woollen rags. These threads they tie into dolls, little birds, or mice, or they make brooms with them, or lay them loosely into a small basket or clay saucer to represent the nest of birds or mice, or they manufacture them into small beds for dolls, cut from paper or wood. However, after the very first occupation, the signal for luncheon is given. The children march again to the large playroom. In the meantime the two little helpers place at each seat a small round piece of board upon the table, and on each of these boards a small slice of bread and butter is laid and cut into small pieces. When all

preparations are made, the children march back to luncheon amid suitable calisthenic exercises. After breakfast the children again repair to the playroom, while the little helpers clear the tables and prepare for the new occupation. This lasts until 11.45, when the children are dismissed to their homes, with the exception of those whose mothers work away from their homes, who receive their dinner at the Kindergarten. These remain under supervision during the entire noon recess, and, should they feel tired, they take a nap on mattresses provided for this purpose. The afternoon session lasts from 2 to 4 o'clock, and is spent chiefly in free play or movement games." "In the upper classes, and, indeed, throughout this school, much stress is laid on intelligent intercourse with nature, and on the activities of daily domestic life. Subjects for instruction are chosen chiefly from nature, and in accordance with the seasons. Thus, in March, the lessons and plays dealt with peas, lentils, and beans; in April with violets and Spring beauties; in May with some prominent May-blossoms, and other trees; in June with grass and cereals; in July with chickens; in September with water; in October with the apple tree and ivy; in November with the mouse and baked apples; in December with the pine tree, and so on."

"In the highest class the work in the Froebel occupations is gradually combined with the rudiments of school work. Instruction begins at 8.30. In writing, they learn to make simple letters; in arithmetic, they analyse numbers with the help of sticks and lines, from one to five; in German, they learn to form simple sentences and to analyse them into words, and these into syllables; in drawing, they draw from stencils the outlines of right angles, squares, etc., and fill these with lines—they learn to recognise angles, and to draw them; in home geo-

graphy, they learn to know the cardinal points of the compass, and the directions in which to find familiar buildings and localities. They observe the position of the sun, and other similar facts. They measure the schoolroom, and distances of objects from each other, and make a ground plan of the house and its contents. They become familiar with native plants and animals." Let me in passing quote from a report written over 30 years ago by the German Froebel Association: "Yes, you say, but how about reading and writing? Writing? The child must learn to walk before it can skip and run; similarly it must first learn to draw, and *then* to write, for writing is only a particular kind of drawing. And reading? Why, indeed, should a child learn by reading how a house, a right angle, a horse, a plough looks, what the farmer and miller do. . . . Why not, rather, hear about these things, and, so far as possible, see and do and represent these things? Will not these things be to him in these ways clearer, more living, and more impressive than reading about them could make them?" Just one more quotation before we leave this point, and this time from Appendix 8 of the Instructions to Inspectors of the English Education Department: "It will be found that the elementary subjects, when taught on right methods, can be treated with greater variety. Reading becomes a Kindergarten lesson through pictures and word-building. Writing becomes a variety of Kindergarten drawing. Elementary exercises in number are associated with many of the Kindergarten occupations. It is the experience of many good teachers that by the adoption of such methods, it is found to be unnecessary before the sixth year is passed to employ books for reading, except occasionally for a change of occupation, or perform any exercise in writing, except the elements

of letters, or to do any formal arithmetic work on slates."

Germany has no complete system of infant training such as we possess. Indeed, not a few Germans express much regret at this, stating that it is a loss that these impressionable years should be allowed to pass without any other training being possible than what the home affords.\* Very often this home training is about as bad as possible, the little ones often seeing and hearing much that must have a permanently pernicious influence on their characters. Until quite recently Germany was very largely an agricultural and rural community, but the growth of modern industry, of capitalism, has resulted in an enormous increase of the urban population and of material wealth. Some German cities have grown faster than even American cities. The result is that the bad effects of the factory system are only now beginning to be seriously felt in Germany. Hitherto, the German housewife has been able to train her children upon the excellent system that she herself was trained in, but the factory must interfere very seriously, indeed, with this, and the need of a substitute for the home will then be sadly needed. Many societies are at present working to fill up this lacuna. There are in all the large German towns private Kindergartens, where the children of different classes may find children of their own class gathered together for training on the principles of Froebel. Those attended by the poorer classes supply a mid-day meal for one penny a day. One of such

\* "Jean Paul says of the child that it learns more in the first three years of its life than an adult in his three years at the University; that a circumnavigator of the globe is indebted for more notions to his nurse than to all the peoples of the world with whom he has come in contact."—Lange.

private Kindergartens had, when visited by me, about 40 children present; but in the winter they have twice as many. The teachers were most industrious and skilful; indeed, so zealously do they work that my wonder is that they are able to stand so great a strain. Of course, the classes are small—ten children to one teacher. The children all sit around a table, and talking (orderly talking, of course) is encouraged as much as possible. The walls are papered, and the rooms generally have a very homely appearance. The idea is to make the place as little like school and as much like home as possible. The lessons are quite informal. No time-table appears to be drawn up, only a scheme of instruction, and this is for the purpose of securing unity in the curriculum. The Kindergarten is open from 9 to 12 in the morning, and 3 to 6 in the afternoon, but much of this time is spent in the open air under a shed in the playground, or playing in the playground. The sand-pit in the playground is evidently a favourite spot. Then they have their garden plots, where plants are grown and pets kept. No formal lessons in the three R's are given; five is the limit in number; no writing on slates nor reading from books is taken, but language exercise is very largely cultivated. All the lessons *centre* round the nature lesson.

It would take me too long to tell you of the interesting lessons I heard, or the games I saw played, but I was much delighted with the school. The children were so thoroughly happy, so unconscious of their training, so natural, that I felt convinced that this, indeed, was much nearer Froebel's ideal than anything I had seen before. There was no attempt to check the natural vivacity, restlessness, and talkativeness of the children. The teachers recognise fully the physiological truth that children cannot, and were never intended by Mother

Nature to sit still. There was no "Be quiet," nor Sh—sh" heard, but rather the children were encouraged to talk—in an orderly manner. There can be no doubt that such a training-ground as this must produce that love of learning which is the greatest gift the people's schools can give a child.

In Switzerland, the home of so many great educational reformers, the spirit of Froebel has not penetrated very deeply into infant education. The infant schools of Switzerland are looked upon, as they are in some other countries, as merely preparatory courses for the primary schools. Yet they are rapidly improving and extending, and, being amenable to that healthy public opinion on national education that characterises the modern Swiss, they are bound to become fine examples of what well-staffed and well-supplied Kindergartens should be. These Swiss schools are composed of a lower division for children between the ages of three and six, and a higher division for children between six and seven. In both divisions the instruction consists chiefly of object lessons, manual occupations, games, and songs. These schools are gratuitous, but not obligatory. The infant schools are open daily, except on Sundays, Thursdays, and legal holidays, from 8 to 11 a.m., and from 1 to 4 p.m. When the number of children exceeds 40 an assistant must be provided. The duty of the teachers is to watch over the intellectual, moral, and physical education of the children; to inculcate good principles; establish good habits, proper manners and correct language.

The Belgian Kindergartens were supported mainly by the Municipalities, but since 1870 they have been largely subsidised by the State. It is not proposed to discuss in detail the organisation and administration of these schools; it must suffice for my purpose to sketch very



briefly how a day is spent in a Kindergarten in Brussels, and in doing so I shall paraphrase a description given by one of the teachers. (Mde. H. Van Molle André, in the Commissioners' Report, 1890-1, vol. II., p. 690.)

If you enter such a school between eight and nine in the morning, you will notice the children dropping in casually, accompanied often by their elder brothers and sisters, or by their parents. Punctuality is not a virtue. You will see them drop in even up to nearly ten o'clock. The children appear thoroughly happy, and amuse themselves in the corridors or playgrounds until nine o'clock. The first and second classes are inspected as to cleanliness, and then marched off to their class-rooms, where the first class have as an occupation "Folding," and the second class "Tablets." With these tablets the children are taught colour and design, and these designs are reproduced in chalk on the blackboard by the teacher. You will notice that the children laugh and talk thoroughly at their ease, and there is no attempt on the teacher's part to restrain their natural restlessness. They consider it as wrong to try to make a child sit quite still, as it would be to tie him up in ropes to secure it.

In the first class you will see the children making paper models of boats, houses, and so on, and then sailing their models on the water-trough placed on the teacher's table.

What are the babies doing? You will find that they are playing a circle game, under the direction of their teacher, in which full rein is given to the babies' boisterous fun. At half-past nine the lessons are changed. The first class march to their playroom and go through exercises in drill, to the accompaniment of a piano. The babies have "cubes," with which occur the usual exercises, but completed by each child making whatever

form he pleases, and then conversing about it with the teacher. The second class, meanwhile, are engaged in blind man's buff in their playroom. At ten o'clock the next change takes place. The first and second classes are given pencils and slates, and leaves of trees are distributed to each child, who then draws it by passing the pencil around it, the cleverer children also adding the veins. Whilst the drawing is going on the teacher of the first class converses with the children about the walk they had the day before through the wood, and she questions them about the trees and leaves they noticed, and at the same time shows them various kinds of leaves. The babies have meanwhile been playing an "Imitation" game.

At half-past ten the first class plays a "Tree" game, which naturally follows their conversation on trees. The second class has gymnastics, whilst the babies are busy mat-weaving.

At eleven o'clock the second class is busy at bead-threading on wires, and very pretty lace patterns are made. The first class is engaged in "Slats"—long strips of wood, with which they make patterns, either at the direction of the teacher or upon their own initiative. The babies have been out in the playground playing, and are now, at half-past eleven, ready to go home, and soon their elder brothers and sisters join them. Many of the children, however, dine at school, and the caretaker transforms one of the class-rooms into a dining-room. The tables are covered with smooth white tablecloths, and set with plates and spoons. To each child is served out a basin of capital soup, which the teachers also partake of.

At half-past one, afternoon school begins, the first class doing cardboard work, in which the children are

encouraged to work out designs of their own. The second class is engaged on the second gift, supplemented by the children trying to knock down a column with their balls. The successful child at this improvised cock-shy is greeted with tumultuous applause. The babies have been playing "Little Fishes."

At two o'clock the babies take up the first gift, whilst the older children take this half-hour for free-play in the playground.

The next change occurs at half-past two, when the first class takes up stick-laying, and the second class perforating, by means of pads of felt, perforating card, and pricking needle. The children do not all do the same design, but are encouraged to follow their own invention. The babies play horses during this half-hour.

At three o'clock first and second classes go out to the playground to play with the teachers, whilst the babies are busy at interlacing paper bands, talking in the meantime with their teacher or their companions.

At half-past three, the first class marches to the classroom, and takes up ring-laying, while the second class does sand-modelling, and the babies prepare to go home, which they all do at four o'clock, having doubtless spent a very pleasant day.

The early infant schools of France, up to the time of the present Republic indeed, made it their chief object to prepare the children in the three R's for the primary school, but mainly owing to the efforts of Jules Ferry, Greard, and others, these have been done away with, and replaced by a system more in accordance with the spirit of Froebel's teaching. In 1887, a decree was issued in which it was laid down that the proper foundation for primary instruction is a training in which the physical and moral sides of a child's nature are as carefully trained

an his mental powers. But even now, these schools are, it is said, far behind those of Belgium and Germany.

M. Duplan, the Sub-Director of Primary Instruction in Paris, speaking in his report of these infant schools, says :

“ At half-past six in summer, and at half-past seven in winter, the caretaker is at her work, the fire burning, and everything in its place. The teacher on duty is the first to enter. She has to receive the children, and to supervise them. Until nine o'clock, the children as they arrive are gathered in the court in fine weather, in the playroom in unfavourable weather, and play freely.

“ At nine o'clock all the teachers are at their posts. At the signal given by the directress, silence reigns, and the children group themselves in classes. From nine until half-past nine the inspection for cleanliness takes place, and the children are led to the lavatories and offices ; finally, at half-past nine, they enter the classrooms singing.

“ The next period lasts until half-past ten—for an entire hour, intensesness of thought. Care is taken, therefore, to vary the exercises ; a little reading and writing, object lessons, and language exercises. After each exercise, songs and marching round the rooms. Thus the hour passes rapidly, and the fifteen minutes' recess which follows suffices to relax the fatigued little minds.

“ At quarter to eleven, the work is taken up again, varying each day. At one time the teacher tells instructive and moral stories, at another time she takes up geography.

“ At half-past eleven the hour for luncheon has come. The children eat what they have brought, or what the school fare furnishes them. Then they play. At half-

past one the work begins again, as in the morning, with reading and language exercises. At two o'clock follows arithmetic or singing, alternately for thirty minutes. From half-past two to three o'clock the little ones play in the playroom, or in the courtyard, while the bigger children are engaged in gymnastic exercises. From three to half-past three, drawing and manual work are taken. Well-handled, these exercises are a veritable recreation, so that the lessons (in morals, or hygiene, or natural history) which follow from half-past three to four find the children's attention still bright. After four o'clock the children play in the courtyard, or on the covered playground, awaiting the arrival of those who come to fetch them."

Just a word now on the buildings of these French Kindergartens. "The classrooms are large, well-lighted and cheerful. The reception hall in which the children eat their meals is spacious, and gives access to the playground. Planted with large and beautiful trees, which, in spite of their dense foliage, admit air and light, this playground is at once entertaining and instructive. Entertaining, because here the children engage in their merry games; and instructive, because it possesses a border, in which the head-teacher every year, in order to please the bigger children, has them sow wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, and flax. These plants, which the children are pleased to watch in their growth, furnish topics for interesting and profitable lessons. Besides useful plants of this kind, the border is edged by boxes full of beautiful flowers, which the children tend and care for themselves, and it is difficult to over-estimate the keen interest the children take in these boxes of flowers." ("A Day in a Maternal School," by Mdlle. Marie Hardy, in Commissioners' Report, 1890-1, p. 739).

The Froebel Institute at Naples would take more time than I have at my disposal to describe. It is subsidised by the State, and consists of a Kindergarten in three divisions—a transition class, four elementary classes, a higher school of five classes, and a Froebel seminary for the training of teachers in Froebel's system. In the Kindergarten, the boys and girls are educated together, but not in the other classes. The Institute has over 1,000 pupils. It should be noted in passing that in many foreign Kindertgartens, the children are cleaned and fed at the school, that is, at the public expense. Listen now to what the teachers themselves tell us of their work. We will take the teacher of the babies first. She says :

“Naturally this class, more than the others, preserves the tone of the family. Here there are merriment, joy, and festivity without end. The occupations are simple, elementary, and always alternating with songs, games, and other diversions. However, everything is grouped as much as possible about a common object, so that the child may gradually learn to concentrate his attention upon a certain group of facts. A certain subject is chosen, either with the help of a story or of a stanza of poetry, or of a picture, and all the occupations serve to illustrate, to represent, and to explore the subject. The story should be short, clear, animated, and the children should take part in it, not only listening, but imitating in play the movement in part. Such a story furnishes material for an entire week.

#### THE FROZEN BIRD.

“Little Mary lived in a nice little house. She had a sweet little room all to herself, with a window from

which she could look out into a large garden. Directly opposite, at a short distance from the window, there was a high tree, in which, during the summer, many little birds built their nests. One day it turned very cold, and the frost lasted for several days. Mary frequently looked out at her tree, for every day it lost more and more of its leaves, which had already turned quite yellow. It rained constantly, and one day, to her great surprise, when she stepped to the window, she saw that the tree and the window-sill were covered with snow. She opened the window, in order to scatter, as usual, crumbs of bread for the little birds that lived in the tree. But what did she see? A poor little bird, with its eyes closed, and quite cold. 'Poor little bird,' she exclaimed, taking it in her little hand, and breathing on it in order to warm it. Then she ran to mamma, crying: 'Look, mamma, what I have found—I fear it is dead.' And her mamma went immediately to get some cotton, with which she made a soft, warm nest for the poor little bird. Gradually the little bird began to get warm, and opened its little eyes. Then it began to eat, and at last to hop around the room.

"Little Mary, full of joy, ran to get a cage, put the little bird in it, saying, 'Now this will be your little house, and I shall be your little mamma, for it is cold out of doors, and it rains.'

"From that day he was little Mary's friend. Every morning he woke her with his song, and Mary from her little bed wished him 'Good-morning.' After the winter came the spring, the trees began to put forth new leaves, and the little birds began to build nests among the branches. But Mary's little friend was still in his cage. He heard the songs of the other birds, and saw them flying about. He, too, would have liked to be with them

in the open air, and he became sad, and stopped singing. Mary noticed this, and, one beautiful day, she opened the cage, gave a last kiss to the little bird, and let him fly away. The happy little bird flew to the tree opposite the window, and there began to sing with all his might. Every morning after that he pecked at the window to greet his little Mary.'

"After the story the children imitate the little birds in their games. When they return to their tables they build with cubes and bricks the little bed in which Mary slept, the window on which the little bird was found; the garden and the trees covered with snow flakes are made in the sand table. The little balls are made to fly like the little birds, they are caught in the hands as Mary did the little bird, etc. Thus every occupation is related in some way to the little story."

The teacher of the First Class writes:—

"My class, being the third of the Kindergarten, forms the bridge from the Kindergarten to the school. Here the children are to be prepared to become good scholars. Hence certain occupations become more important than others. Such are drawing, number, and language exercises, the discussion of objects, and preparation for writing. The conversations tend to enlarge the ideas, to increase the knowledge of the child, as well as to give him conscious control of his speech. Having selected a subject of conversation, I let the children make short sentences about it. If I have, for instance, spoken of a dog, I let the children tell me all that Fido can do. Fido eats, Fido drinks, etc. I let the children see clearly that when I say Fido sleeps, I do not mean that he runs, and that when I call Fido, I do not mean Julius. I aim to impress upon the children that each word corresponds with a thing, an action, etc., and that



everything has its own name. When they have appreciated the full word, I let them break it up in syllables, and finally in these various syllables I let them find the various sounds, leaving to the school the work of continuing this study on the synthetic side. Of equal importance are the first number exercises from one to ten, always in the form of play, and keeping from all abstract work. I let my children count numbers of things. These exercises constitute mental gymnastics, and are of much value if care is taken to avoid premature considerations of abstract work."

She points out that in the Kindergarten Froebel endeavoured to cultivate the physical, moral, and mental faculties; the first by gymnastics, the second by the love engendered between the teacher and taught. She adds: "Love is a fountain which must be reached in the education of a child. All in the Kindergarten is love—love of the teacher for the children, of the children among themselves, and for their other mamma. This love should extend to all within the reach of these little ones, and find fresh food in intercourse with nature. To make the flowers speak as well as the bird and its little ones, and the meanest worm to endow it with a soul with affections and feelings while the child is near, so that he may love and respect them—this is the great secret. The world of the little child should teem with love. He becomes good through contact with nature. All teaching should tend to establish habits of order, of accuracy, of neatness, and nourish in the child the sentiments of the beautiful and the good. In his work the child should experience a sense of gratification that makes him love his work. In his occupations the child is, at first, directed by the teacher. Subsequently he invents for himself. In this lies the chief value of the

occupation, for it is creative work that gives strength of mind, and engages all its powers and enables it to feel as it were, its own value."

Let us now gather up our ideas, after this too rapid review of some Continental Kindergartens. We notice that the lessons are short, and you will remember that the Board of Education in the Instructions to Inspectors, says: "The infant school contemplates in the length, variety, and character of its lessons the training of scholars whose delicate frames require very careful treatment. It is essential, therefore, that the length of the lesson should not in any case exceed thirty minutes, and should be confined in most cases to twenty minutes, and that the lessons should be varied in length according to the section of the school. In the babies' room, which should always, when circumstances permit, be separated from other rooms by a partition, and should contain abundant space for games and exercises, the actual work of the lesson should not be more than a quarter of an hour. Each lesson should be followed by intervals of rest or singing."

It must be remembered that in advocating the principles of Kindergarten training, one does not mean thereby the neglect of the teaching of the three R's but rather that the three R's be taught by more intelligent methods, and less reliance be placed on the memory; for example, that number be taught by means of the gifts, and not by memorising tables. As Sir George Kekewich long ago pointed out, our duty and privilege is not to do the work of Standard I., but rather to prepare the soil, so that when the time comes for the child to take up the work of Standard I. he will be prepared, not because he has already done similar work, but because his intelligence has been cultivated, and his love of

knowledge kindled. Let me emphasize this point. You infant teachers should have a distinct aim of your own, quite apart from that of the other schools. Your ideal is to train up and turn out, not so many children who can do Standard I. work, but children whose powers have been so developed that the work of Standard I., although new, is easy to them. The course and aim of the infant school should be complete in themselves.

In taking up an occupation, always ask yourself, What is the educative value of this occupation? How do I propose to train the children through it? Do not take up an occupation simply because it is pretty, but on the other hand do not reject it because it is pretty.

Another point must be kept in view and it is this,—that the larger muscles and nerves of the child must be cultivated before the smaller, and that consequently anything that cultivates the finer muscles and nerves before the larger and coarser is wrong. Hence it is wrong to give a child fine work of any kind to do, and I am not sure that not a few Kindergarten occupations are to be condemned, because they involve the cultivation of the finer nerve centres. Fine work, whether of the fingers or the eyes, is not suitable for little children. Needlework, for example, is prohibited in French infant schools.

In drawing out a time-table, it is desirable so to place the lessons that the afternoon may be mainly taken up with the Kindergarten gifts and occupations, and that the work of the babies should be varied often, and interspersed with games, songs, and marching. In teaching reading, one finds occasionally that from 100 to 160 pages of reading matter are gone through so diligently that a clever child can go on reading with his book shut. This is best obviated by doing less reading from the

book, and more reading from the black-board. Get the children to tell you in a simple sentence of their own making what they see in a picture, etc., then print this and other similar sentences on the black-board, and then later on, after a lesson on word-building, get the children to read them.\* The phonic values of the letters should be taught, so that the lessons in word-building and sentence-forming, which would generally be the only reading lessons of the second class, may have an intelligible basis. In American schools you will see the teacher call three children out, tell one to pronounce *b*, the middle one *a*, and the last child *g*. They then pronounce it in sequence, slowly at first, and then more rapidly, so that the children distinguish how the combination of the three sounds forms the complete sound of the word.

In the babies' class, the forms and sounds of the letters of the alphabet (when taught) might be taught by Stick-laying, Drawing, the Kindergarten Alphabet (pieces of cardboard to form letters); Pictorial Alphabet (for teaching the sounds). We must, however, teach these little ones to speak, before teaching them to read.

In writing, one should remember that writing is only a special form of drawing, and that consequently it is important that the babies should, at any rate, spend much more time at drawing than writing. I have visited schools where the babies did no writing, but only drawing, and the writing of the First Class certainly seemed none the worse for it. The drawing of the

\* In some infant schools, an apparatus for printing letters and words on large sheets of paper fixed to the blackboard is now used, and by this means the children make their own "Readers"—a highly ingenious device.

babies should be natural and not across or through squares. Besides drawing, laths, stick-laying, and writing (better still, drawing) in sand are all admirable means of teaching the lower class the rudiments of writing and reading.

I now come to arithmetic and number exercises. Slate arithmetic \* should be, I think, restricted entirely to the First Class, and even there to the latter portion of the school year. Further, to teach these little ones to do sums up to hundreds and thousands, as is sometimes done, is, I think, unwise, for these numbers are quite beyond their comprehension, and that they can do such sums at all is evidence of remarkable memories, but certainly not necessarily of intelligence. I do not wonder that so much time is taken for "tables" if the children are expected to do such sums. These numbers, moreover, are generally given in the abstract form, whereas nothing but concrete quantities should be dealt with in an infant school. Much better is it, I think, to fix, say, the number five for your Third Class, and allow the teacher to give the number exercises always within that number. The following gifts may be utilised here:—

Gift Three,  
Stick-laying, and  
Number pictures.

The number pictures are helpful in teaching the children to recognise a group, and so ultimately doing away with unit (and its concomitant finger counting).

In the Second Class the work should be entirely of an oral and concrete character, and with, say, ten as the outside number. The occupations most suitable are:—

\* When taken.

Gifts Three and Four,  
Stick-laying,  
Ball or Number Frame, and  
Number pictures.

With respect to the number lessons of your First Class, the Instructions say :

“In arithmetic no sums on slates should be attempted until the children are familiarised with the four processes by easy mental work. For example, the number 20 may be taken, and after counting by cubes, or other objects, the children will dissect the number, find out in how many ways it is made up, and perform all the arithmetical processes, both orally and in writing, that can be dealt with within that limit.”

Gifts three, four, five, and six will be helpful here, and I would also suggest cardboard coins for the children to play “keeping shop.” I saw a most interesting lesson in a school recently, in which various articles, which the children themselves had made, were sold, and the correct change asked for and given. Weights, again, and a pair of scales will be found helpful, for it is surprising how vague children’s ideas are even in the older school of the relative values of different weights.

The next element of training I shall touch upon is the teaching of colour and form, but only very briefly. Colour should be taken first, and in teaching colour, one should, of course, be careful not to name the colour until one is sure the children can recognise the identity of the colour in different objects, *e.g.*, I show the children a red ball, then ask them to show me objects of a similar colour, then name the colour. In teaching form and colour to the babies, Gift I., Stick-laying, Drawing, and Mat-weaving are useful, also picking out and matching colours in wool, etc. “Ravelling” is also a very suitable

occupation for teaching colour, whilst for teaching the secondary colours to the First Class, the celluloid colour films, and brush work are very useful.\* In the Second Class for this subject of instruction, the following have been suggested :—

Gift II., with Modelling,  
Stick and Tablet-laying,  
Paper Folding,  
Drawing,  
Picking out, Matching and *naming* Primary  
and Secondary colours.

In First Class :—

Modelling,  
Paper-folding, Cutting, and Mounting.  
Drawing,  
Perforating and Embroidery.

A word now as to fairy tales and story-telling. I believe in cultivating the children's imagination for many reasons, but chiefly because it takes them out of themselves, from this sordid, hurrying, work-a-day world to a land of perennial sunshine and glorious impossibilities. Some authorities, I know, think that a child cannot too early learn the reality, and, shall I say? the logical cruelty of facts. But I believe in first of all making the children happy, even though it be but for an hour. Happiness is so rare in this world that I think you are giving the child a great treasure in an hour of unalloyed joy. He will have few such in his after life. How often is it that the gloomy asceticism which some of us call religion is forced upon the children whose religion should

\* Brush work, free drawing, and modelling are it would seem invaluable as educative instruments for the training of little children.

be as Christ taught it, and as bright as the flowers they love so well! So let each of your teachers, and you also, tell the children fairy and other stories such as those in Miss Poulsson's "In the Child World," or Miss Wiltse's "Kindergarten Tales," say, three or four times a week; get the children to talk about the story, and take a part in the story; ask them what they would do under such conditions, and so on. Similarly in picture lessons, which should also come often, get the children to talk about what they see in the picture, and to give their ideas in their own language. Here is a picture lesson from a German school:—

"Then followed a language lesson, which had for its subject "The Winter." A large picture was used. It is a magnificent winter landscape. In the background was seen a city with smoke-stacks, church steeples, etc; on the left a road with a blacksmith's shop, on the right a pond on which children skated; in the foreground a coasting slide and a group of children making a snowman were seen. The picture offered several other interesting scenes, such as cutting ice on the pond, sleighing, shovelling snow, etc. High up in the grey, wintry air were seen crows. The hillsides, roads, roofs, trees, and bushes were covered with snow."

"I cannot sketch the entire lesson. Only one episode is vividly impressed on my memory. I will endeavour to reproduce it, for it is a proof of how consistently little children of six years can reason out things, and how well they talk when they have something to say.

"Teacher: What kind of a bird is this?"

"Pupil: A crow.

"Teacher: What do you notice on the snow around the bird?"

"Pupil: Many of the crow's footprints,



“Teacher : What do they tell you ?

“Pupil : That the bird must have hopped about there.

“Teacher : What may it want there ?

“Pupil : It is looking for food ; it may be hungry.

“Teacher : Is the crow a shy bird, or as free and easy as a sparrow ?

“Pupil : I think it is a very shy bird.

“Teacher : Where does it build its nest ?

“Pupil : High up in the trees of the woods, far away from houses.

“Teacher : What, then, may be the reason of its coming so near to the blacksmith’s shop, where boys are playing and dogs are kept ?

“Pupil : Because it is likely to find food near a shop like that.

“Teacher : Yes ; but if it is so shy a bird as you say it is, I should think it would not dare to come so near men and their houses.

“Pupil : Well, I think it wouldn’t if it could find any food in the fields. But don’t you see the fields are covered with deep snow ? How will a poor crow get food there ? So it comes near the blacksmith’s shop. It is very hungry, and I think those crows high up in the air have sent this one down to see whether there is any food to be found. If they get a chance, they will come too and get some.

“Teacher : Yes, dear, that’s very well said. I think that must be it.” (“European Schools” by L. R. Klemm).

I should now like to direct your attention to what is called the centre-point, that is to say, making all your lessons for a certain period hinge upon a particular set of ideas usually embodied in the nature lessons. We have already noticed examples of this in Continental schools, and I will just give one or two other examples :—

## JULY.\*

## Week 1 :—

Nature Lesson.—The Frog.

Story.—Introduction to "Water Babies."

Song or Game.—"Tradesmen" ("Songs and Games," Keatley Moore). "Frogs and Birds" ("Kindergarten Songs and Games," Berry and Michaelis).

## Week 2 :—

Nature Lesson.—The Dragon-fly.

Story.—"Tom's First Lesson."

Song or Game.—"Fish in the Brook" ("Mutter-und-Kose-Lieder," trans. Miss Blow).

## Week 3 :—

Nature Lesson.—The Gnat.

Story.—"Tom's Step Downwards."

Song or Game.—"Gnats" ("Six Nature Games," Anderton—Charles and Dible, price 6d.).

## Week 4 :—

Nature Lesson.—A talk about the changes seen in Caterpillar, Bee, Frog, Dragon-fly, Gnat, etc.

Story.—Conclusion.

Song or Game.—"Come and Form a Ring," or "The Seasons" ("Kindergarten Songs and Games").

## SEPTEMBER.

## Week 1 :—

Nature Lesson.—Fruits and Dandelion.

Story.—"Iduna" ("Heroes of Asgard").

Song or Game.—"Dandelion Clocks" ("Six Nature Games").

## Week 2 :—

Nature Lesson.—Primrose and Buttercup.

\* "Child Life,"

Story.—“ Iduna ”—continued.

Song or Game.—“ Autumn ” (“ Music for the Kindergarten,” Heerwart).

Week 3 :—

Nature Lesson.—Hips and Haws.

Story.—“ The Sleeping Beauty.”

Song or Game.—“ A Little Boy’s Walk ” (E. Poulsen’s “ Finger Plays ”).

Week 4 :—

Nature Lesson.—Blackberries.

Story.—“ Baldur ” (“ Heroes of Asgard ”).

Song or Game.—“ Autumn ” (“ Music for the Kindergarten ”); or “ The Wandering Song ” (“ Mutter-und-Kose-Lieder ”).

Here is a scheme of lessons for a month, suggested by Miss Dodd :—

## SEPTEMBER.

### I.—STORIES.

1. Paris and the Apple.
2. Atalanta and the Apples.

### II.—OBJECT LESSONS.

1. Examination of the Apple and its parts (stalk, skin, pulp, juice, core, pippins).
2. Examination of a Pear and its parts.
3. Apple and Pear compared and contrasted.
4. The Apple Tree.

Illustrations of apples and pears, and sections of apples and pears were skilfully drawn in coloured chalks on the blackboard. The children painted apples and pears and fruit trees in connection with some of the lessons,

## III.—SONG GAME.

“The Apples, O the Apples, O.”  
 “The Trees.”

## DRAWING.

1. Wall of the orchard.
2. Gate of the orchard.
3. Ladder.
4. Apple and pear.
5. Leaves of apple tree.
6. Barrel of apples.

## MODELLING IN CLAY.

1. Apple.
2. Pear.
3. Cider cup.
4. Jam pot.

## ARITHMETIC.

Easy problems, using apples as concrete objects.

Here is another scheme for six-year-old children for June, on Peas and Beans (also from Miss Dodd's book).

## I.—STORIES.

“Jack and the Beanstalk.”  
 “Little Peablossom.”

## II.—OBJECT LESSONS.

1. The pea flower and bean flower compared.
2. Development of pod, and examination of pod.
3. The pea and bean plants compared.
4. Shelling and cooking peas.

These lessons were illustrated by many charming sketches in coloured chalks on the blackboard.

III.—DRAWING.

1. Pea leaf and pea pod.
2. Opening pod showing peas.
3. Watering-can to water the peas.
4. Dish to contain the peas.

Painting pea and bean blossoms was an additional exercise.

IV.—MODELLING.

1. Leaf of the pea.
2. Pea pod.
3. Dish to contain the peas.
4. Cover of pea dish.

V.—SONG.

“The Little Gardener.”

VI.—PAPER-FOLDING AND CUTTING.

Fences for training the peas.

VII.—ARITHMETIC.

Easy problems in addition and subtraction, using peas as concrete objects.

VIII.—FINGER WORK.

Chair and tables made of softened peas and thin laths.

“Some time before the lessons took place, peas and beans were put into saucers of water, and allowed to sprout. The children watched the process, and

examined the sprouted peas and beans in the object lessons."

My purpose is now completed. I have endeavoured to place before you pictures of Continental Kindergartens painted by the teachers themselves. I do not think it necessary or desirable that we should take these as models. Indeed such would be impossible. In Germany the Kindergarten may not concern itself with teaching the three R's; in France again many of the infant classes retain all the worst characteristics of English infant schools of the old days; in no country is there a comprehensive system of infant training such as England provides.

There is nothing to be despondent about in our infant schools, but much to be hopeful for. Some of our infant schools are perfect "republics of childhood," and the future progress of the other schools is dependent entirely upon the facility with which they adopt those principles of training which Froebel enunciated and Dickens preached.

Nothing indicates the pulse of public opinion more sensitively or accurately than the public school. A community always deserves the school it possesses. Quicken public life and you will revolutionise the school. If bigotry and intolerance are found in the school, then be sure they flourish outside. To reform the schools necessitates only educating public opinion. But that is a gigantic task needing a strong character and unique talents. It is an easy matter to frame laws for a ready community—it is a different matter to find and to prepare your ready community. The man who can lift public opinion a step, who can show us how to make "the bounds of freedom wider yet," who can lead us to consider the possibility of even allowing *some* spontaneity

to those little helots of modern society—children, who can reassure us as to the improbability of the body politic tumbling round our ears, should children be allowed to grow as children, such a one is indeed a great reformer, a great benefactor, in a word a great educator. This was the work of Charles Dickens to which he devoted his incomparable genius, and all his heart. What made Dickens' advocacy so irresistible was that the purity of it was beyond inuendo. He was no professional pedagogue, he had no axe to grind or books to sell—simply souls to save. Dickens came to his task with a certain "intellectual detachment" which disarmed criticism and compelled attention. And so was effected that revolution in English thought which may be symbolised by two buildings—the prison and the board school. This new spirit is not confined to the school; it has permeated our morals, our ethics, our religion. It has brightened the homes and the hearts of thousands, nay, tens of thousands of our English children. The child which had become the fiend of a gloomy theology was again placed upon the pedestal where Raphael placed it—again became the young God in the Madonna's arms leading the race upward in its evolutionary march to perfect development and freedom. This nineteenth century renaissance was mainly the work of Charles Dickens. Dickens saw the nobility and sacredness of the teachers' work; he saw that without that sympathy wherein soul speaks to soul school is indeed a sepulchre.

In conclusion allow me to quote an American educator's words on the high dignity of the teacher's calling, adding in parenthesis my conviction that it is those lands where the honour in which the teacher's office is held highest that are just those where education is most efficient.

“I want even our humblest teachers to have some higher appreciation of the honour and dignity that belongs to their work. As they come here and see the noble army of men and women engaged in it, I cannot but think that they may return to their work with some new pride in it. Let them reflect for a moment what is the dignity and grandeur of the material upon which they work. It is the soul, the mind of the child infinitely nobler than the canvas upon which Raphael painted the Madonna with a beauty born in Heaven, purer and whiter than the whitest Italian marble from which Michael Angelo freed from its imprisonment the form of a Moses or of a David. The materials with which they work are not the mere pigments of a painter, or the chisel of a sculptor, but the humblest ‘schoolmarm,’ the humblest kindergartner that is trying to teach the child some idea of geometrical forms should remember that she is planting for ever in his mind one of the great ideas of which God has builded the world. The humblest ‘schoolmarm’ in the remotest log house in Northern Michigan or Wisconsin should remember that when she is teaching the A B’s to the stammering boy at her feet she is placing before him a ladder on which he may yet climb to the stars. That is the work in which you are engaged. Be proud of it. Never be ashamed of it. The rewards in money are small but the rewards in gratitude and love of your disciples are beyond the purchasing power of gold. The teacher’s profession is a fountain of youth. I have seen many a teacher with grey hairs and some with bald heads, but I never saw an old teacher yet. The smile and play of youth are ever on his face, because he is ever associated with the child and thinking the glad and happy thoughts of children.” (Dr. J. B. Angell.)



## ADDENDUM.

*I have added for purposes of comparison with these foreign schools pictures of two of our own schools as sketched by the teachers themselves.*

OUTLINE OF CORRELATED SCHEME OF INSTRUCTION  
IN AN INFANT SCHOOL.

LESSONS FOR A WEEK IN MARCH, 1901.

<i>Classes 1 and 2.</i>	<i>3 and 4.</i>	<i>Babies.</i>
Wind and dust.	A windy day.	"The maid was in the garden hanging out the clothes."

## MORNING.

THE children assembled at 9. 20 punctually, in one room. School was opened by the head teacher with the repetition of the Lord's Prayer, Morning Hymn and Greeting, and the National Anthem.

This was followed by a short Scripture story of "Christ stilling the Tempest," selected for its connection with the week's lesson on the *Wind*.

Descriptive songs such as:—

"I saw you toss the kites on high"

"The wind at play."

"Who is this that's calling down the lane."

were next sung and the words explained.

After this the children marched to their classes for the "Morning Talk" and "Story," given by each teacher. Reading followed, and was closely associated with the chat about the Wind, by a sentence taken from the Story printed and illustrated on calico by the teacher. This sentence was the ground work for word-building,

free drawing, and children's original sentence-making, syllable and letter sounds, suitable actions, etc.

The ringing of the bell announced time for play. After this came writing which was almost a continuation of the reading lesson, words and sentences from the week's lesson being attempted.

Number occupation followed, and illustrated addition, subtraction, multiplication and division by games, free-drawing, or stick-laying with a certain number of sticks such objects as ships, busy windmills, fans, etc. The morning's occupation closed with simple physical exercises and imitation drills of sailing ships, weather-vanes, windmills, etc. Throughout the whole of the morning's lessons the "Work of the Wind" was the leading feature.

#### AFTERNOON.

All the afternoon's occupations had a close relationship with the morning's lessons. The stories were Æsop's Fable of the "Wind and the Sun" and an adapted story of the disasters which happened to Tommy's kite and his mother's clothes line caused by the gambols of Mr. Wind.

These stories were converted into dramatic games or moving life-pictures followed by a song or recitation.

The work of the whole day was ended with a suitable hand occupation, thus leaving a permanent impression of all which had been taught, played, or talked about.

The occupations which best illustrated the Wind lesson were :—

1. Ruler drawing and colouring of windmill.
2. Paper folding of boats, which were afterwards sailed on a bowl of water.

3. Paper kites, made and taken by the children into the playground, practically illustrated the song "I saw you toss the kites on high."
4. Blowing bubbles.
5. Sewing and pricking a weather-vane.
6. Template drawing, colouring and pricking of wind-mill.
7. Folding fans, folding and cutting windmills and fastening to a stick.
8. Free drawing of picture lesson.
9. Cutting out Nellie's clothes for the line.

#### BABIES' ROOM.

In this class all was "make believe" and sense impressions. The lessons were adapted by the Nursery Rhyme and conversational pictures to the week's lesson.

Vivid impressions of what the wind can do were brought out by a lively representation of the "The maid was in the garden hanging out the clothes."

The toy clothes-props and lines were used, and busy children unconsciously learned what the wind could do as they sang and played the old Nursery Rhyme "Sing a song of sixpence."

The alphabet was taught through word and letter sounds. Such a sentence as "The maid was in the garden" had an "R" in "garden" for the chief letter of the lesson. A little girl with letter "R" card suspended round her neck was the "maid" "hanging out the clothes," and thus prominently kept "R in garden" well in view.

Printing, writing, and drawing were also attempted. The number occupation and game of birds flying about and resting on the clothes line amused and

instructed. Games, physical exercises, and action songs frequently interspersed the short lessons.

The afternoon's varied occupations were:—Bead necklace for the maid; cutting out paper apron for her; sewing with a bootlace on a card a picture of Tommy's house; blowing bubbles, folding and sailing Tommy's paper boat; ball action songs of "Hush a bye baby on the tree top, when the wind blows the cradle will rock," etc.

Throughout all the lessons the child's activity was prominently in evidence in the Babies' Room.

#### COMMENTS.

Slates are not in use, but small blackboards, plain and lined paper and sand-trays are used for writing, printing, number symbols and free drawing.

When weather permits, the children of Classes 1, 2, 3 and 4 take a walk with their teachers; they are trained to observe closely, and are encouraged, when they return to give a word or free drawing picture of what they have seen.

#### IDEALS AND AIMS.

1. To foster an intelligent habit of observation and simple reasoning powers.
2. The association of one lesson with another through some one leading idea or ideas.
3. "Action instead of abstract learning, and character building." (Froebel).
4. Inventiveness and self reliance cultivated by (a) Expression through picture drawing; (b) Language expression by a child telling a story in his or her own words.

## THE WORK OF A SECOND SCHOOL.

THE Concentric Method of Instruction has been adopted in this school since September, 1899, and in the opinion of the teachers it is an immense improvement on the former methods.

Under the old régime a class might have a lesson on an Apple, followed by a reading lesson on the Cow, a recitation about the Sea, a song of the Bees, and perhaps a game of the Farmyard, children modelled apples and pears, coloured flowers and fruit. Thus, although much pains were taken by the teacher, the knowledge acquired by the children was unconnected, and could make but little impression on their minds. But with the Concentric System all this is changed and changed for the better. The Nature or Object Lesson is the point or centre towards which all the other lessons converge—yet in such a way as not to weary the child's mind, for, although the same object is brought up again and again, it is always with some new feature which keeps up the children's interest.

This school opens at 9.30. When prayers are said badges of punctuality are distributed to those who are then present. These badges are simply rosettes of coloured braid sewn on another piece of braid and worn round the neck. The children thus decorated are eligible for all the little offices that children love to perform, *i.e.*, keep the cloak room tidy, pick up papers, give out or take up pencils, books, etc. And last, but not least, they are privileged to sit in the front benches, and are pointed out to managers and visitors as the "best children." By this means we try to instil a habit of punctuality. The first lesson in every class is the Nature Lesson or a story leading up to it. This story (which need not be

the same for every class) is illustrated by the teacher on the black-board with coloured chalk. It lasts from 10 to 15 minutes, and at the end the children are encouraged to "tell" it to the teacher in their own words. If the story has been already told the teacher refers to it, shows the illustration and questions about it, and then goes on from it to the Nature Lesson.

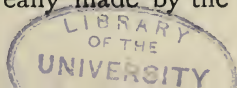
The aim of the teacher is not so much to supply a certain amount of information on a given subject as to "draw" out the children, to train them to observe and to help them to express their own ideas in correct language.

We work from a scheme drawn up for each month, and a glance at it shows the teacher what she has to prepare. But although all work from the same scheme, each teacher is allowed perfect liberty in her treatment of the specified subject, and is encouraged to use her own brains as much as possible. As an instance of this I may mention that when we took up this method there was only one teacher who could draw, that is one teacher who possessed a "D." When it was announced that Object Lessons, number lessons and stories must be illustrated for the future, there was nothing but consternation on every face, but when it had to be done, each one set herself to the task, with the result that even the youngest teacher thinks it the ordinary thing now to take chalk and illustrate her lessons.

The lessons are chosen to suit the time of the year, as much as possible—for this present month, June, the lessons are—Parts of a flower, The Rose (June roses), The Bee (The flower's visitor). The story taken to introduce the lessons is "The Fairy and her friends" from the Granville Readers, Standard III. Apart from its utility in leading up to the lessons, it gives an oppor-

tunity of impressing on the children's minds the virtues of truthfulness and unselfishness. Different flowers are illustrated on the black-board, and teacher questions and supplies information. At the end of the Nature Lesson, Writing is taken—the word chosen being the name of a flower, or something about a flower, generally supplied by the children, *e.g.* "Roses are red" etc. Half an hour is devoted to writing, but the distribution and collection of pencils and copy-books must be included in that time. The Number Lesson follows the Writing, and is treated much like a game. The children are sent to market to buy and sell all sorts of things according to the lesson. At present they are often gardeners counting their trees, flowers, etc., and selling and buying the same. At other times teacher draws a field on black-board in which five pigs or sheep play many pranks—appearing and disappearing while the children tell the number of legs, tails, eyes, ears, etc. All sums take the form of simple problems—very easy of course, but involving at least addition and subtraction, and later on multiplication and division (for Class I.)

Children are now allowed fifteen minutes recreation, after which comes Reading. The black-board is largely used, and there is quite an exciting and amusing quarter of an hour spent in Word-building, and especially Sentence-making. The Teacher chooses a word occurring in the Object Lesson, and asks for sentences. She prints on black-board the sentence she considers best, greatly to the delight of the child who made it. These sentences form the reading matter, and by changing a word here and there the children are prevented from learning them by heart. By means of the "Easy Sign Marker" these sentences are preserved and form reading sheets really made by the children. The



same may be said for the little stories retold by them in very simple words. They furnish additional matter for practice in reading.

The afternoon is entirely devoted to Kindergarten Gifts and Occupations, Singing, Drill and Games. The occupations taken this month by Class I. are as follows :—

- (1) Brushwork—Yellow and purple daisies.
  - (2) Clay Modelling—Sun-flower, Bee-hive.
  - (3) Colouring—Different flowers.
  - (4) Embroidery—Lily and poppy.
  - (5) Sand Modelling—A Garden.
  - (6) Free Arm Drawing—Beehive, Flower-pot.
- The Recitation—Queen Rose.  
 Song—Song of the Bees.  
 Game—Jack's Dream (Kindergarten play).  
 Drawing—Garden gate, rake, watering-can, spade, pump, garden seat.

The same methods are used in Class II. but more help is given and less expected from the children. They have the same songs and games as Class I., but the recitations and Kindergarten occupations are different, and are utilised to illustrate the Nature Lesson. They are as follows :—

- (1) Clay Modelling—Cherries, plums.
- (2) Stencilling—Roses and poppies.
- (3) Free Arm Drawing—Flower-pot.
- (4) Figure Laying—Pump and watering-can.
- (5) Cubes—Garden wall ; well.
- (6) Stick Laying—Flower-pot and flower ; flower-beds.
- (7) Paper Folding—Windows and roof of Green-house.
- (8) Cork Work—Garden seats ; ladder.



For the third Class or Babies, there is a special Time Table. Each lesson occupies no more than twenty minutes, and is followed by a song, game or physical exercise. Many little devices are adopted for teaching the letters pleasantly, amongst which are—letter forming, rainbow paths, giant letters. Nursery rhymes are an unfailing source of delight to the babies, for they not only sing, but they also act them. Coloured chalk is in great demand in the Babies' Room, for there every little story is illustrated. The simplest drawing executed by a teacher before her class seems to have more charm for all infants than the most beautiful picture hung before them.

The Kindergarten occupations in the Babies' Class are numerous, so that they may not become tired of, or accustomed to, any one. All need not be used every month, but as many as possible are utilised to illustrate the lesson. The Object Lesson for May was Birds, and the following occupations were used in connection with it:—

- (1) Ravelling—A bird's nest.
- (2) Drawing in sand—Bird and bird's nest.
- (3) Bead threading—Black, yellow, red and brown beads to represent blackbird, canary, robin, and sparrow.
- (4) Stick laying—Tree, in which was nest.
- (5) Straw and paper threading—Birds on tree.
- (6) Bamboo work—Cage.
- (7) Pin and bead work—Outlining a bird with pins and beads.

Story—The Crippled Sparrow.

Recitation—The Naughty Sparrow.

Song and Game—Birdies in the greenwood.

Babies are encouraged to talk to teacher about what they are making, and a language lesson is great fun—teacher does something or touches something and children tell her what she is doing.

The babies, as well as the older infants, are taught to answer in complete sentences—very short and simple it is true—but no easy matter to obtain, still, with patience and perseverance it comes at last. Games and Marching play an important part in the Babies' Class, as they are very frequently resorted to, not only with a view to physical training, but also as means of brightening up the children between the lessons. Sand trays provide unlimited amusement for the babies; they never seem to tire of them, and it is by means of them that the little ones receive their first ideas of writing and free-arm drawing. Number is taught on the Kindergarten principle. Children count and perform little problems by means of the beads, sticks, cubes, or whatever they actually have in their hands, but these objects are not looked upon as beads, sticks, etc., they become for the time birds, sheep, dogs or anything else that the teacher likes or the object lesson suggests.

With regard to the number of Kindergarten gifts and occupations, we consider it more advantageous to the children to provide several occupations. and thus ensure variety, than to aim at great excellence in a few. As to the choice of these gifts, etc., they are chosen more with a view to their educational value in the development of the children's faculties than to their mere prettiness, although we constantly find that the occupations that most delight and interest the children, are those that appeal to their sense of the beautiful.

The teachers do not forget that their aim should be to make the school a pleasant place, to which the

children like to come, because they are happy there ; for then they will more easily imbibe those ideas of truthfulness, honesty, order, and cleanliness which every true teacher tries to instil into the minds of her children.

## CHARACTERISTICS OF CHILDHOOD.

You will all, doubtless, have read that noble ode of Wordsworth's on Immortality, in which the poet excelling himself sings :—

Our birth is but a sleep and a forgetting :  
The soul that rises with us, our life's star,  
Hath had elsewhere its setting,  
And cometh from afar :  
Not in entire forgetfulness,  
And not in utter nakedness,  
But trailing clouds of glory do we come  
From God, Who is our home :  
Heaven lies about us in our infancy !  
Shades of the prison house begin to close  
Upon the growing boy.  
But he beholds the light, and whence it flows  
(He sees it in his joy ;)  
The youth, who daily farther from the east  
Must travel, still is nature's priest,  
And by the vision splendid  
Is on his way attended ;  
At length the man perceives it die away  
And fade into the light of common day.

I imagine that that idea of the little ones trailing clouds of glory is one of the most exquisitely beautiful conceptions in the whole range of English literature, nevertheless I would point out that the poet was not a teacher. So much depends upon the point of view ; yet even *we* must

confess that there is to be observed by the sympathetic and keen watcher much in the child that is not earthly, and all of us would silently acquiesce in Tom Hood's regret that

'tis little joy  
To know I'm farther off from Heaven  
Than when I was a boy.

There is nothing so interesting as a child. His quaint ideas, foolish fears, and playful imaginings are full of instruction and interest to everyone; but to those who are concerned in his nurture it is more than an interesting study, it is a duty to make themselves familiar with the growth and development of these fair plants which *le bon Dieu* has given into our care. And yet, although men have talked on education since the time of Aristotle and Plato, and indeed before, yet it is only in these latter days that the child, his mental and physical development, has become a subject of study in the scientific sense. Yet, how unsatisfactory, how futile must be any system of education which does not rest on the bed rock of child study! I need not illustrate my point further than to say that it was left for Froebel, less than 100 years ago, to point out that the education of children should be largely occupied in cultivating, not repressing, the self activity of the child; and that to Herbert Spencer it was left to tell us that the mind really appropriates only the knowledge that affords it pleasure and agreeable exercise.

How many a mother has repressed the mental growth of her child, yet as Fenelon the French writer long since told them,—“Curiosity in children is a natural tendency which comes as the precursor of instruction. Do not fail to take advantage of it. . . . For example in the country they see a mill and they wish to know what

it is. They should be shown the manner of preparing the food that is needed for human use. They notice harvesters and what they are doing should be explained to them; also how the wheat is sown and how it multiplies in the earth. In the city they see shops where different wares are sold. You should never be annoyed by their questions; these are so many opportunities offered you by nature for facilitating the work of instruction. Show that you take pleasure in answering such questions and by this means you will insensibly teach them how all the things are made that serve human needs and that give rise to commercial pursuits."

Now let me go somewhat more fully into the advantages of child study. Here are some of the truths that have already been demonstrated by the students of this science. It has for example been shown that children grow more tall in the spring and fat in the autumn of each year, and that different parts of the body grow at different times. Again, "Times of physical growth are also times of mental growth in acquisition though children then are not able to systematise well." Consequently one would advise a father to take a growing son to the Paris Exhibition, let him see everything, but don't bother him about what he sees there. Another example of what a study of children may accomplish is, that an Italian writer, after a careful investigation, has shown that the music written for children of from three to six years of age, Kindergarten songs and the like, is either wrong in using a compass not at all suited to the voices of the children of these ages, or quite contrary to every law of infantile physiological pedagogy and of musical æsthetics.

Another point has been emphasised by these investigations, and it is this, that the larger muscles and nerves

of the child must be cultivated before the smaller, and that consequently anything that cultivates the finer muscles and nerves before the larger and coarser is wrong. Hence it is very wrong to give a child fine work of any kind to do, and I am not sure that not a few Kindergarten occupations are to be condemned, because they involve the cultivation of the finer nerve centres. It is, I believe, much better to give a little child twine and a packing needle than a needle and thread to sew with. Any fine work whether of the fingers or the eyes is not suitable for little children. Again, how often do we tell our little ones to "sit still" or "be quiet"—whereas it is an absolutely demonstrated fact that it is impossible for a child to sit still for one minute, and certainly Mother Nature never intended him to do so.

"For instance, in our tests the children were requested to stand still and then to sit still. We went through the classes of the grammar school. We only asked them to sit still a minute, then we reduced the time to half a minute, and we did not find a child who could sit still one half of a minute; limbs, tongues, hands, fingers, were certain to move. Of course with a little attention it made it all the worse. We saw the secret which has brought premature grey hairs to schoolmasters and schoolmistresses. We found that the idea that children can sit still must be abandoned, and that teachers must learn to possess their nerves and patience if the children do not sit still."\* (Dr. Hall.)

\*Dr. Stanley Hall's opinion is thus summed up: "But the great result of it all is this: That the modern school seems to be a force tending to physical degeneracy. It is very hard for a child to sit four or five or six hours a day during eight or ten months in a rather imperfect air, in a rather unphysiological seat with the only strain thrown upon the little muscles which wag the tongue.

Here again is the result of an investigation into what a town child knows when he first enters school. "Thirty three per cent. of these Boston children on entering school had never seen a live chicken: 51 per cent. had never seen a robin; 75 per cent. had never seen a growing strawberry, 71 per cent. had never seen a bean growing. Many of them, it was found, had no idea as to how big a cow is. One thought a cow was as large as her cat's tail. Another thought that a cow was as big as her thumb nail."\* How often is a mother surprised at questions or observations of a child. A boy of three years and nine months would thus attack his mother. "What does frogs eat and mice and birds and butterflies?"

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Nature has made it very hard for a healthy child to sit still; and when we consider that children, the civilized world over, and in countries barely civilized all go to school, we see what a tremendous danger there is that the race will be imperfectly developed. How sad the thought that the race may, indeed, almost must degenerate in its efforts towards the realisation of its loftiest ideals. I don't know what you say; I for one believe it would be a thousand times better that the children should grow up in ignorance of all that our schools teach, valuable as it is, than for the race to continue in its peril of physical degeneracy, which seems inevitable under our present system. For myself, I say, what shall it profit a child if it gain the whole world of knowledge and lose its own health? or what shall a child give in exchange for its health?"

This "sad thought" of Dr. Hall's may be placed alongside and compared with the discussion on the disadvantages of the erect biped position on the physical and mental evolution of man in "Man and Woman," by Havelock Ellis. These are the revenges of Nature.

\* What is the cause of this lack of interest in nature-study? Dr. Hall says, "I believe this to be simply due to the fact that city life has taken children away from nature, so that the real love of the children has not been given free course. It is impossible in the



and what does they do? and what is their names? What is all their houses names? what does they call their streets and places?" &c., &c.

Other favourite questions are—

Why do the leaves fall?

Why does the thunder make such a noise?

Where does all the wind go to?

These questions are best answered by a little fiction, *e.g.*, the leaves are old and tired of hanging and want to go to sleep, or the thunder giant is in a very bad temper, or, if asked what becomes of all the old moons, a child is readily satisfied by the reply that they are cut up and made into stars. A little child asked her mother why there was water in the river, and was told, "Because there must be water somewhere but not everywhere." Another child asked why beans grew in the earth. Her mother answered, "Do you not grow every day? and kittens, don't they grow? all animals get bigger, and little ones become great ones? And the plants do just

large cities to teach these nature subjects as they ought to be taught. Blackboards will not do. It grieves one to see these blackboard leaves when they are the whole text of instruction in our common schools. Flowers do not grow in chalk frames. They have got to have the environment of grass and trees and sky in order to touch the soul. Nature is the first love of every child, and every child who does not feel this love is in an abnormal state. We have been cross-questioning a good many children in reference to their feeling towards nature. We found a good many who said, 'this tree or this rose-bush knows me or knows when I come here.' One said, 'I can see this one languish because the other is cut down.' Another said, 'I always knew the difference between a fool tree and a wise tree, and I thought everybody did. 'I know,' said another one, 'that trees feel it if their limbs are cut off.' We had children who talked to their doll and their pet hen. We had one child who said she understood her lamb. 'I

the same." Another child asked why water was not wine. His father asked him in answer, "Is a dog a cat? wine is wine, and water is water."—(Perez.)

We are all of us so apt to make our own minds the normal that anything not quite in accordance with our preconceived ideas as to the eternal fitness of things pains and surprises us. A little German girl of 2½ years lost her little brother and seemed for some days strangely indifferent, but missing him one day, she asked her mother what had become of him. On this the mother began to cry, and the child in endeavouring to comfort her, as children will, said. "Never mind, Mamma, you will get a better boy. He *was* a ragamuffin." Here is another example. A child of four years old had lost one of his favourite companions. He was taken to the little boy's house and the father took him on his lap and held him there a few minutes while giving way to a fit of weeping. The child understood nothing of all this grief; he got down as quickly as he could, disported himself a little while about the room,

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know he knows me for when I put out my hand he sees me and puts out his hand, I shake my head, he shakes his head.' The child philosophy about all these things is a natural philosophy. The little girls who hug and kiss their pigs and are not reprovèd by their mothers are indeed children of nature. The children who really make friends of the flowers and whose hearts go out to the stars, they are the children who can be understood and who can understand nature's language. Premature, pallid little Christians they will never be. You cannot induct children into the love of nature by the use of microscope and charts. There must be a previous sympathetic ground work. And I say to those who love children you must love nature and children and God together. They were never meant to be separated and cannot be separated without injury to all. Religion is locked in the love of nature and without the love of nature and the love of God all is sham."

and then suddenly going back to the poor father exclaimed. "Now that Peter is dead, you will give me his horse and his drum won't you?"

Professor Sully tells us of a little boy of two years and two months, who, after nearly killing a fly on the window pane, seemed surprised and disturbed, and after looking round for an explanation then gave it himself "Mr. Fly don to by-by." Much has been written and said of the cruelty of children, and anyone who has seen a child maul a kitten or worry a pup must regretfully confess that the trailing clouds of glory cannot hide these fiendish propensities of the young animal. Nevertheless we must be on our guard against exaggerating these deficiencies. How much of this cruelty is due to ignorance of suffering it is difficult to say, but it is not difficult to give numberless instances of genuine kindness and love towards animals by children. Why, they even pity the stones on the roadside because they have to lie so long in the same place, and the leaves because they fall, and pins because they are bent. An amusing instance of a child's sympathy to the animal world was told me the other day by a headmistress. In the schoolroom a number of silk worms had been reared, and after being carefully fed had been placed in separate baskets against the wall in order to spin. The teacher had explained that they were not to have any more food, which cruel privation evidently troubled some of the infants, for during the dinner hour a small boy knocked at the door and asked permission if he might come in and watch the silkworms work. Permission was granted, and the teacher watched this generous youth. When he thought himself unobserved, he was seen to stare fixedly down into the basket, surreptitiously pull an apple out of his pocket, bite a piece off and drop it into the basket with

these words,—“Please, Mr. Silkworm, Miss —— nor teacher won't give you sump-sing to eat. There—eat that.” This he did for each basket. Many other amusing examples of the same amiable trait occur, *e.g.* :—A little American boy, five years old, was playing with a tadpole till it died. Immediately the other tadpoles ate it up, and the child burst out crying. His elder sister, with the best of intentions, tried to comfort him by saying—“Don't cry, William, he's gone to a better place,” to which rather ill-timed assurance he retorted sceptically—“Are his brothers' and sisters' stomachs a better place?”

A fond mother once said to her little son of six—“Why Dick, I believe you are kinder to the animals than to me.” “Perhaps I am,” said he, “you see, they are not so well off as you are.”

But children's sympathies are not confined to the animal world, *e.g.* :—A little girl of seven, who had just lost her grandfather, was heard to pray thus—“Please, God, grandpapa has gone to you. Please take great care of him. Please always mind and shut the door because he can't stand the draughts.” “I know,” (says Perez) “a little child not yet three who is a striking example of what has been aptly called the ‘memory of the heart.’ His grandfather and father, whom he was very fond of, are both dead. The grandfather had been dead a year and the father five months. Not a day passes that he does not speak of them. Whenever he is taken to his grandfather's house he seats himself on his grandfather's arm-chair, asks to have the curtain lifted up from grandpapa's picture, and looks at it with an expression of real emotion. At home he asks every day for the photograph of his father; he kisses it and makes his sister and his elder brother do the same. He understands

why his mother is sad, and says to her,—‘ You are sad because father is not here.’ If he sees her crying he kisses her and says,—‘ Don’t cry, I will go and fetch papa, I will make him come back, I have got the key of Paradise.’” Their antipathies are equally cosmopolitan as was shown by the little girl who was observed scribbling something on paper and then burying it in the garden. On being dug up the letter was found to be as follows : “ Dear Devil,—Please come and take aunty soon ; I cannot stand her much longer.” It is interesting to note this young lady’s ideas of Satan’s home address.

Dr. Henry has given a number of very amusing childrens’ sayings in a recent number of the “ Irish School Monthly.”

In a reference to the unconscious irreverence of children, he tells us of “ a little girl of five, who inquired of her sister : ‘ Who makes the leaves come on the trees ? Does Allman ? ’ (Allman was the gardener).

“ ‘ No,’ replied the sister. ‘ God makes the leaves come on the trees.’

‘ I’m sure Allman doesn’t let God come meddling in this garden,’ retorted the little one.”

Jacky longed above all things for a bicycle—longed and prayed that someone would give him one. Every day he came downstairs hoping to find the bicycle in the hall. At last something came, but it was a tricycle. His mother who was lying in wait heard a heavy sigh, and ‘ O God, I did think *You* would have known the difference between a tricycle and a bicycle.”

Another little boy asked his mother one day. “ Have I been good lately ? ”

“ I think you have,” was the answer.

“ Oh, well ! I shall leave off praying now, for

it's no use asking God to make me good, if I am good."

Dr. Henry also reminds us of the boy who said that "Lying lips are an abomination to the Lord, but a sure and present help in time of trouble."

A little girl who was asked what is the best food for babies replied. "Oxygen, hydrogen, and a little carbon."

Various young geographers have mentioned Sodom and Gomorrah as the two most famous volcanoes in Europe, and have informed examiners that the Nile rises in Mungo Park.

The following essay is said to have been the work of a schoolboy. However, "I ha'e me doots."

"Henry VIII. was the greatest widower that ever lived. He was born at Anno Domino in the year 1066. He had 510 wives, besides women and children. The first was beheaded and afterwards executed: the second was revoked. She never smiled again. The greatest man in this reign was Lord Wolsey. He was called the 'Boy Bachelor,' being born at the age of 15, unmarried. Had he served his wife as diligently as he served the king, she would not have deprived him of his grey hairs. In this reign the Bible was translated into Latin by Titus Oates, who was ordered by the king to be chained up in the church. It was in this reign that the Duke of Wellington discovered America, and invented curfew bells to prevent fires in theatres. Henry VIII. was succeeded by his great-grandmother, the beautiful and accomplished Mary Queen of Scots, sometimes called 'Lady of the Lake' or the 'Lay of the Last Minstrel.'

It is a most interesting and instructive fact that every child born into this world is not only deaf and dumb, but blind also, and remains so for some days after its birth. The helplessness of the new-born child as compared

with the ready resource of the new-born chicken, which on stepping out of its shell will pick up a seed, is remarkable, and is, at first sight, somewhat staggering to the complacency of the lord of creation.

I have already referred to the awkward and embarrassing questions put by children, which should be met by encouragement not by reproof. Thus children will sometimes ask "Where is yesterday gone to? and where will to-morrow come from?" A clue to many of these questions and to children's thoughts generally is to be found in the keen imagination of children and in their being unable to conceive of abstract ideas. Time, such as days, years and so on, is very real to them, just as real as fairies and giants are. All the universe is full of life to them, and it is no more absurd to a child to hear of a bird or wolf speaking than to hear his own play-mates speak. A little girl  $2\frac{1}{4}$  years old having a string attached to a ball put into her hand, after swinging it round mechanically began to notice the ball's own movements and said to herself, "funny ball." Another little girl two years old being asked by her mother for a kiss answered "Tiss gone away." A small boy of three having climbed into a very high waggon was asked, "How are you going to get out," replied, "I can stay here till it gets little, and then I can get out myself." This is a curious idea which children have that some things grow small as others grow big, and is doubtless due to seeing old people as age creeps on getting shorter and shorter. A girl five years old stopped one day trundling her hoop, and, turning to her mother, exclaimed, "Ma, I do think this hoop must be alive, it is so sensible; it goes where it wants to." Children again when they see the sea for the first time sometimes burst out crying and imagine it is chasing them;

they are afraid of it as of a huge giant. We all know how a child will scold a table or wall against which it has hurt itself. We must continually remember that these questions of the child are perfectly natural, and "the outcome not merely of ignorance and curiosity, but also of a deeper motive, a sense of perplexity, of mystery, or contradiction." Then do not check children's questions, for as Sully says:—"More pathetic than the saddest of questions is the silencing of questions by the loss of faith," It is the duty then of all interested in children to endeavour to find out and sympathise with their way of looking at things. The child is so imaginative, so lacks experience as to neglect the essential for the incidental. A boy was asked by an Inspector "What is grass?" and the reply was "Grass is what you got to keep off of." To find out the contents of children's minds is our first step. Here are some of the results obtained by an American observer. He set questions which were designed to draw out the ideas of children 5 years of age on number, colour, power of observation.

1. What is a brook? Amongst the answers were—  
Water that has flies on,  
A little thing that water runs in.
2. What is a pond?  
Where there are frogs.  
Round and water stays in it.  
To set on and fish.
3. What is a hill?  
A steep place.  
Big steep dirt.



A place to slide down.  
A big big place of earth.  
A bump.

4. What is a chicken ?

Got feathers on.  
Is good to eat.  
Makes eggs.  
Can lay eggs and wear feathers.

5. What is a cow ?

What has a tail.  
That got hair on.  
It's a bossy.  
That hooks people.  
Something like a mule with horns.  
and another well known answer is,—  
“A cow 'as got four legs, one on each corner.”

5. What is a tree ?

Got roots and limbs.  
To sit under.  
To climb upon.  
To make the wind blow.  
This last is a delightfully interesting answer.

7. Where do beans grow ?

Under the ground.  
On trees.  
At the store.

8. Where do potatoes grow ?

On trees.  
Taters don't grows.

## 9. What is right?

Not to be naughty.

To work,

To behave.

To work and be nice and kind.

To mind mama.

To set the table.

Not to run away.

When he don't lie or steal.

## 10. What is a school?

Schoolhouse.

Show you A B C.

Where children come.

To learn lessons.

To spell and read.

It's here.

To put little kids in.

In an essay on "Bread" a Glamorganshire youth finished up that "'Tis not right to eat bread by itself for the Bible do say man shall not live by bread alone, therefore mother do give us cheese and butter with it."

Children are terribly logical and always probe the most sacred secrets in search of a cause. You all remember that intensely strong picture of the child's craving for a cause portrayed in the opening chapter of Olive Schreiner's "Story of a South African Farm," and every thoughtful child passes through a similar experience. "Nothing is more interesting to a child," says Sully, "than the production of things. What hours and hours does he not spend in wondering how the pebbles, the stones, the birds, the babies are made." A child asked his father why he did not make a hole in

the water by putting his hand into it. A Catholic priest was somewhat awed by a boy of eight saying to him. 'Please, Father, why don't God kill the devil and then there would be no more wickedness in the world.'

"Children begin to speculate about the other side of the world, and are apt to fancy they can know about it by peeping down a well." I remember as a boy the many pools about my home which were reputed to be bottomless, and it always worried me to account for these ponds being generally full of water.

Children are often extremely egotistical: "*ikkle me*" is the centre of their universe. A lady was talking to her little girl of three and mentioned incidentally something that happened before the child was born. The child in utter amazement cried, "But, Mamma, what did you do without Ethel? (child). Did you cry all day for her?" A somewhat conceited child of five was addressed by a visitor, "Why, Willie, however did the world go round before you came into it." The reply immediately was, "Why, *it didn't* go round. It only began five years ago." Another child asked, "Where was I a hundred years ago? and where was I before I was born?"

Here is a charming dialogue from Sully between a mother and her child.

Child: "Why must people die, mamma?"

Mamma: "They get worn out, and so can't live always, just as the flowers and leaves fade and die."

Ch.: "Well, but why can't they come to life again just like the flowers?"

Ma.: "The same flowers don't come to life again, dear."

Ch.: "Well, the little seed out of the flower drops into the earth and springs up again into a flower. Why can't people do like that?"

Ma.: "Most people get very tired and want to sleep for ever."

Ch.; "Oh! I shan't want to sleep for ever, and when I am buried I shall try to wake up again; and there won't be any earth on my eyes, will there mamma?"

Here is another conversation between a mother and a child:

"What are seals killed for mamma?"

"For the sake of their skins and oil."

(Turning to a picture of a stag). "Why do they kill the stags? They don't want their skins, do they?"

"No, they kill them because they like to chase them."

"Why don't policeman stop them?"

"They can't do that, because people are allowed to kill them."

(Loudly and passionately). "Allowed, allowed? People are not allowed to take other people and kill them."

"People think there is a difference between killing men and killing animals."

But the boy was not thus to be pacified. He looked woe begone, and said to his mother piteously. "You don't understand me." No, we don't understand this fine sensibility of the child, this trailing cloud of glory. What a horrible chaos of wrong and chance this world seems to the child! Everything is out of joint; the harsh realities and cruel crudities of life are crushing him in on every side.

To the child, death is very terrible; this pushing down into the cold clammy earth is horribly repugnant to the bright gladness of these little ones. It is not only wrong, it is cruel, to speak much to little children of death. "A little girl of  $3\frac{1}{2}$  years asked her mother to

put a great stone on her head because she did not want to die. She was asked how a stone would prevent it, and answered with perfect childish logic 'Because I shall not grow tall if you put a great stone on my head; and people who grow tall get old, and then die.' Children's ideas of death are sometimes as if it were merely a sleeping; *e.g.*, a little boy of  $2\frac{1}{2}$ , on hearing of the death of a lady, asked his mother "Will Mrs. Jones still be dead when we go back to London?" A boy 4 years old said to his father, "Did you know they have taken Mr. Williams to Grafton?" "Yes," replied the father, and the boy added. "Well, I s'pose it's the best thing. His children are buried there, and they wouldn't know he was dead if he were buried here." As a small boy, I always hoped to die young, because I was told that when people grow up they get wicked, and so forfeit their chance of a better land, but I am sure that the awful fear of death, so characteristic of most children, was never realised by me, probably because I had had but little experience of it. I well remember going to see my boon companion lying dead, and what struck me most of all was not the solemnity nor the horror of it all, but the beauty. The dead child's features so often seen full of pain in life, (for he was a little hunchback), were now beautifully placid and calm.

But all this leads me to say something of the fears of children. There is nothing so painful to a child as seclusion. To shut a child up in a dark room is the very acme of cruelty. Nothing of the ingenuity of cruelty so characteristic of mediæval torturers exceeds this ready punishment of a thoughtless parent.

The fear of the dark is another characteristic of children. You will remember how R. L. Stevenson describes this :

Now my little heart goes beating like a drum  
With the breath of the Bogie in my hair ;  
And all round the candle the crooked shadows come  
And go marching along up the stair ;  
The shadow of the balusters, the shadow of the lamp,  
The shadow of the child that goes to bed,  
All the wicked shadows coming tramp, tramp, tramp,  
With the black night overhead.

Victor Hugo describes how little Cosette when sent out into the dark " felt herself seized by the black enormity of Nature. It was not only terror which possessed her, it was something more terrible even than terror." A lad of four himself said " Do you know what I thought dark was? A great large live thing the colour of black with a mouth and eyes." As a lad, I had a real fear of the dark, and it was enhanced by the fact that my two miles walk home from the school was largely through a dense wood. A farm labourer on one occasion amused himself by lying in wait for me and giving me a very severe fright.

There is nothing so wicked, so wrong, so pregnant with mischief, as frightening children—mothers should be careful of picturing terrors to children, even when prompted by religious or moral motives. Many children's nerves have been, I believe, ruined by too early an introduction to the horrors of this or some other world. A little Welsh girl of about seven years old was staying with her grand-parents, and had been accustomed to hear daily much of the horrors of sin and of hell. Her nerves were doubtless unstrung, and in this state a foolish neighbour told her of the awful accident that had happened to some little children who had gone to a theatre in Sunderland. Every night after this, on being put to bed, she would break out into bitter sobs which sleep alone stopped, and this sleep only came by sheer exhaustion

of crying. Ultimately, her granny succeeded in reassuring her. "Don't you cry Shanny fach, they were only *English* children." The distinction was sufficient, and the evening sobbing ceased. In such states of nervous collapse as these, much can be done by a tactful mother to reassure and strengthen the unstrung nerves of the little one. How careful should one be not to repulse the little confidant. The mother is always the child's refuge and strong tower of defence. Let me quote, "How unhappy those children must be, who, being fearsome by nature, lack this refuge, who are left much alone to wrestle with their horrors as best they may, and are rudely repulsed when they bare their heart quakings to others, I would not venture to say. Still less should I care to suggest what is suffered by those unfortunates who find in those about them not comfort, assurance, support in their fearsome moments, but the worst source of their terrors. To be brutal to these small sensitive organisms, to practise on their terrors, to take delight in exciting the wild stare and wilder shriek of terror, this is, perhaps, one of the strange things which make one believe in the old dogma that the devil can enter into men and women."

I have already referred to the imagination of children. It is difficult for adults to realise what kind of a world children live in. In childhood, imagination is the most powerful faculty of the brain; as the child grows this becomes subdued gradually by reason, until in the normal adult the imagination plays quite a subordinate part in the day's work. To the child every stone, tree, and flower is alive—fairies and gnomes are more real than niggers and flying fish. His world is peopled with strange beings, and he resents the facts of every-day life. To him a talking wolf is no greater phenomenon than a running brook. The phantasies of the imagination are

to the child the realities of existence. What his mind conjures up when his eyes are closed, are real and true things, and the creations of his dreams are but the more beautiful or it may be the more horrible beings that fill so large a space in his little world. A French writer says, "Dreams are the poems of children, who, even when awake, are always more or less of poets. Ah, the strange dramas, the merry comedies, the sparkling idylls, the dismal elegies, the thrilling odes which have haunted in their cradles the brains of future poets! Fictitious inventions which will, perhaps return to them later in life without being recognised, when they think they are imagining quite new and original combinations." And he adds: "Let it then be our endeavour to make this present—which is everything to children—happy and joyous; let us by all means insure to them that happiness which costs so little and which is the first condition of their moral progress. *Happy children are good children.*"

This truth brings home to all of us the moral significance of such social reforms as the better housing and living of our poor. A new street of sanitary dwellings or a pleasant school, is, I think, of greater moral value to a town than many sermons. But to return to this imagination of children. "All that children see they believe to be exactly as they see it. All that is told to them rises in vivid images before them. All the ideas that are suggested to them appear to them in a visible form, and they instantly proceed to execute them. . . . Children are veritable automatons, obeying consciously or unconsciously, with more or less entire docility, the tyrannical influence of an image that suggests itself or is presented to their minds." This power of suggestion on the child's mind is a most dangerous fact, and it is now recognised by legal experts that not rarely the



inuendoes of the mother, and the imagination of the child, have given rise to appalling and demonstrably impossible charges, just as hysteria has originated similar charges by women.

It is a common belief that children are naturally not truthful, and indeed, strictly speaking, this charge is true, but how far the lie is a conscious one is another matter. Some few weeks ago I visited an evening school, and outside the playground, playing by electric light, were several boys of from four to six years old. They came up to me, and one of them, probably four years old, volunteered the statement that Billy Jones had thrown a stone and cracked the glass of the "cullectric" light. This Billy Jones denied, so I asked the informer to show me the crack. We walked up to the light, suspended some 10 feet from the ground, and after a careful scrutiny I saw that there was no crack in the glass. I told the boy this, and he, without hesitation said, "Oh iss, I 'member now, I mended it." Somewhat abashed by his effrontery, I, in an apologetic tone, asked him how he managed to get at it. He at once replied, "Oh, I climbed the wall and reached the glass with my stick." I departed, a sadder and a wiser man. Of course, there are various kinds of children's lies; for example, when a little girl tells you that her Dolly is crying, I do not think there is any need for a moral corrective, or else when I draw on a blackboard certain figures and tell the children they are pigs, I fear that the same corrective would be necessary. Here is an example of another kind, given by Sully, "I was giving some cough syrup and Amy (aged 3 years and 2 months) ran to me, saying, 'I am sick too, and I want some medicine.' She then tried to cough. Every time she would see me taking the syrup bottle afterwards, she would begin to cough.

The syrup was very sweet." In another case, a little girl broke her tea things, and when her mother came up to her, she said, "Mamma broke tea things—beat mamma," and immediately proceeded to beat her mother. A mite of three, in a moment of anger, called her mother a "monkey," and being questioned as to what she said, replied, "I said I was a monkey." Another little girl, being put out by something the mother had said or done, cried "Nasty," then, after a significant silence, corrected herself in this wise, "Dolly nasty." Here is another instance, "Naughty, naughty," said a little child of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  to its mother, who was putting it into a bath against its will. "What," said the mother, "is that how you speak to me?" "No, no, it's not you, it's the water that's naughty," was the prompt reply. A relative of mine used to be much worried by her younger child, a boy, who was put in the cot with his bottle and his little sister. Every night the boy used to start crying, and it was only after some time that the cause was discovered by the mother. There was the little girl with the titty bottle of the baby in her mouth, and murmuring, "Izshy bye, baby dear." A little girl, three years old, seeing her mother fondling her brother for several minutes without taking any notice of her, said all of a sudden, "You don't know, mamma, how naughty Henry has been to the parrot." This falsehood was suggested by jealousy. This lying of children is largely imitative. Children are keen observers and soon notice and endeavour to imitate the prevarications of their elders. Children can be moulded into whatever form you desire, and if you wish your child to be a truthful man, treat him kindly—don't scold him unnecessarily, and above all, let him see that your word is your bond. Never never promise children anything you cannot or will not do.

Let me now say a few words as to the language of children. It is a curious fact that the involuntary babblings of the new born child comprise every simple sound in our speech, which months later it is only by much toil and constant endeavour that the child is able to acquire the intelligent use of. Nurses sometimes imagine that the baby is talking to itself when thus babbling, but this is nothing but a pretty conceit.

The earliest language of children is largely imitative; thus we have the words bow-wow, moo-moo. Then again, children often simplify words, *e.g.*, biscuit becomes bik, handkerchief becomes hanky; other words they transpose, *e.g.*, sugar becomes hoogshur, spoon to spoon, and so on.

Children at first apply the word bow-wow to all dogs, indeed, often to all animals having a tail and four legs, just as the baby calls every man dada, or woman mamma. Taine tells us of a child who, after first applying the word "fafer" (from chemin de fer) to railway engines, went on to transfer it to a steaming coffee pot and everything that hissed or smoked or made a noise. "A star, for example, looked at as a small bright spot, was called by one child an eye." Another child called the opal globe of a lighted lamp a "moon." *Pin* was extended by a child to a crumb just picked up, a fly, and a caterpillar, and seemed to mean something little taken between the fingers. The same child used the word "*at*" (hat) for anything put on the head, including a hair brush.

"A little child, a year old, could not see a hat or bonnet or any article which appeared to be a covering for the head, without saying, 'Mené, mené' (promener), by which he meant that some one was to take him by the hand and lead him out for a walk. Whilst playing

one day at a table, he took a little round mat, and put it on his head, calling out 'Mené, mené.' He said the same thing also when his aunt touched an umbrella. The word 'peudu' (perdu) is associated in his mind with the idea of any object that he sees fall down, and which he throws away or which he cannot see when he hears it talked about. One day he took my hand with both his, stroked it, shook it about like one of his playthings, and then, the fancy seizing him to throw it on the ground, he pushed it away, and let go of it, saying, 'Peudu,' and looking on the floor to see where it had gone. If a flower is given him to smell, he sniffs at it for a few moments, and then immediately offers it to someone else to smell. When he is walking in the garden by the flower beds, he seizes hold of the stalks of flowers, drags them towards him and gives whatever remains in his hands to someone to smell. The sight of the smoke which I puff out of my lips when indulging in a cigar causes him to make a very curious movement of expiration resembling the action of a smoker."—[*Perez.*]

Another child used the word "*key*" for other bright metal things as 'money.' Romanes' child extended the word "star" the first vocable learned after Mamma and Papa, to bright objects generally, candles, gas-flames, etc. A little girl said "Boo (the name of her cat) dot tail poor Babba dot no tail," and proceeded to look for hers. A boy once said he was "sorrified" from horrified. Children often attach their own meanings to words. A boy and a girl, twins, had been dressed alike. Later on, the boy was put into a *suit*. A lady asked the girl about this time whether they were not the twins, when she replied, "No, we used to be." (Sully.)

An Inspector asked a school girl "What is an average?" and was somewhat startled to have the reply "What the

hens lays eggs on." Of course the child had probably heard her mother say the hen lays so many eggs on an average. A boy used to say "Harold be Thy name," for "Hallowed be Thy name." A little girl who knew the poem

"The doctor came and shook his head  
And gave him nasty physic too,"

on catching a cold, asked "Will the doctor come and shook my head?" The response in the Litany sometimes becomes, in children's mouths, "and incline our aunts to keep the snow," but this is probably due to faulty hearing. A boy said a certain day was a "hollorday," because it was a day to holloa in!"

I don't know if any of you have ever noticed how particular children are in their use of words, and how they resent their stories being mauled by a novice. I can remember telling two children a new story nearly every evening before they went to bed. Occasionally I attempted to repeat a story, but it generally ended in disaster, for the smallest deviation from the original story, met with vigorous protests. "Shall I read to you out of this book, baby?" said a mother to her boy of 2½ years old. "No," replied the infant, "not out of dot book, but somepy inside of it." A boy insisted that in buying a cart load of cat's meat the purchaser was entitled to the horse in the shafts.

Other interesting phases of child life, such as their jealousy,\* inventiveness, and predatory instincts, I must

\* One of my nephews, at the age of three years, used continually to talk of the little brother he was soon to have. "I shall love him so much," he would say at every instant. But when he saw the baby taking up his mother's lap and kisses and caresses and his father's care and attention, he expressed his annoyance loudly. He even said to his mother one day, "Won't little Ferdinand soon

leave alone. An instance of a similar jealous temperament has been brought to my notice where the younger of two children, a boy, whenever his sister had a clean pinafore put on, and girl-like strutted about in it, would force her into a corner and throw the contents of his teacup at her and so spoil the fine clean pinny.

Let me say a word or two as to the child as moralist. Generally speaking, the healthier the child, the more rebellious he is. I have already pointed out how cruel, how incongruous, the world seems to the child. He resents this bitterly, and the thoroughly wicked child will stick at nothing to show his resentment. A boy of four, when reminded by his six year old sister that he would be shut out from Heaven, retorted impiously, "I don't care," and added, "Uncle won't go—I'll stay with him." Many children's lies arise from this rebellious spirit. A small boy of 3 years and 9 months, on receiving from his nurse the familiar order "Come here," at once replied, "I can't, nurse, I's looking for a flea," and pretended to be deeply engaged in hunting for this quarry in the blanket of his cot. A little girl of three, in answer to her granny's call, said, "I can't come, I's suckling baby" (her doll). Children are not devoid of tact, *e.g.*, a boy who had been told it was rude to ask for anything at dinner, audibly muttered, "I hope somebody will offer me some more soup," and a little girl of 3½, seeing all the elders helping themselves to cake said, "I not asking." Some children are terrible quibblers.

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die?" When the baby began to walk and talk, the elder child would torment him in hundreds of naughty ways, beating him, dragging him out of his chair in order to take his place, shouting in his ears, calling him naughty and ugly, taking away his toys, and mimicking his way of talking and walking.—[*Peres.*]

A boy had been unkind to his baby brother, and on his mother reproving him, he asked her, "Is he not my *own* brother?" and on his mother admitting so incontestable a proposition, exclaimed triumphantly, "Well, you said I could do what I like with my own things." A child was scolded for pulling Kitty's ears, and replied, "I wasn't pulling Kitty's ears, I was only pulling one of her ears." An American boy of 6 began to cry because he was forbidden to go out and play, and was threatened by his mother with a whipping, whereupon he exclaimed, "Well, now, Mamma, that will only make me cry more." A small boy was placed in the charge of the baby, but presently was met on the stairs by his mother.

M.—"Why have you left baby?"

Boy.—"Co's there's a bumble bee in the room."

M.—"But weren't you afraid of baby being stung?"

Boy.—"Yes, but if I stayed, both of us might be stung, and you would have two to take care of instead of one." (Sully.)

Children are often very punctilious, and resent anything disorderly and unseemly, just as the little girl who asked her Mamma if Mr. Smith was not a very wicked man, because he didn't "smell his hat" when he entered his pew in church. A small boy of two would not go to sleep when requested to do so by his father and mother. At last the father spoke angrily to him, but the infant, instead of being cowed, was only offended at the rudeness, saying, "You s'ouldn't, s'ouldn't, Assum, you s'ould speak nicely." His father's name was Arthur, and he was evidently copying his mother.

An American boy of four on one occasion refused to say his prayers, exclaiming, "Why, they're old. God has heard them so many times that they're old to Him too, why, He knows them as well as I do myself."

Children have often been noticed to reprove themselves. A little girl of 20 months, on being left by her mother in a room, would say to herself, "Tay da." When crying, between each squeal she would say, "Be dood, baba." Having once trod on the flower bed in the garden, she had been scolded, and then said, "Babba will not be naughty adain. If oo do dat I shall have to take oo in, babba."

Here is a pretty story told by Perez :—

"Juliette is twenty-two months old. Her mother has forbidden her to touch the flowers in the window ; she is only allowed to water them with a child's watering pot. She performs this task with a zeal which is only equalled by her awkwardness. She has to ask her mother's permission before doing it ; the flowers would be swamped every day if she watered them whenever she wanted to. When she has been disobedient, the nurse waters them instead. Several times a day she is heard saying, ' Ittle dal dood, water fower.' The other day her mother was in the drawing room with some visitors, and the child suddenly disappeared with her toys. At the end of ten or twelve minutes, she reappeared, her frock and pinafore literally soaked with water. ' Ittle dal dood, water fower,' were her first words on coming into the room. One of the visitors, on kissing her, remarked the state she was in. Her mother flew into the next room, where water was flowing everywhere. This is what had happened ; as Juliette had been disobedient at table, she was forbidden to water the flowers, and her little watering pot had been hidden. But the temptation was greater than her fear of being scolded for disobeying a second time. She had got hold of her nurse's watering pot, and turned on the tap to try and fill it herself ; but she had only succeeded in producing an inundation, and deluging



her frock. She looked so crestfallen and penitent that her mother's only scolding was to laugh at her. In the evening she said to her father, 'Ittle dal not be dood, not no longer dood, cause not like water fower—not like be all wet.' The next morning the nurse gave her back her watering pot, but she threw it down, saying, 'Not dood water pot, not dood, wet ittle dal, no more water fower.' Her resolution, however, did not hold out when she saw the silvery shower pouring out of the nurse's watering pot. 'Ittle dal velly dood, water fower,' said she, and picked up her own little pot.'”

These incidents illustrate the fertility of resource, the inventiveness and the respect for order of children. Let me here say a word as to the training of children in morality, bringing them up in the fear of the Lord, as the old Book so clearly puts it. Rugby boys used to say to each other of their headmaster, Dr. Arnold, “You couldn't tell him a lie, because he always believed you.” From your children always expect the right thing, as though the wrong thing were an utter impossibility—and don't be threatening punishment and asking impossibilities. Try always to look at things from the child's side; remember what a strange world this little being finds himself in. Everything seems so hard and difficult to him, his mother and father are his sheet anchor; if they forsake him whither shall he turn? Finally, more can be done by suggestion than by command; the wise mother suggests the duty, not commands it. It has been shown that hypnotic suggestion can do great things in the case of adults; the influence of the good mother acts in the same way. “Mother would like you to do this,” not, “Mother says you must do this.” Avoid direct teaching; the best religious and moral teaching in my opinion is by a story which

illustrates the truth and has no moral ostentatiously tacked on to it.

Let me sum up. We have been so intent on the philosophy of our education that we have forgotten the subject of it. This little stranger is a curious mixture of conceit, jealousy, anger, chivalry, and love ; he has been thrust out into this strange unsympathetic world of ours where he has been seized by many hands, all anxious to mould him quickly to their own ideals, regardless of his desires and feelings.

Instead of recognising and utilising the diversity of type supplied by this throng of little strangers. we have hitherto been intent, so far as in us lay, to mould them all to the same pattern, and to consider that mould which most quickly fitted them for the work-a-day world as the most efficient—crushing by this process all individuality, all diversity.

How many a bright mind has been thus smothered it would be hard to say,—possibly a future Faraday or a Watt. Yet as Huxley said, “ If the nation could purchase a future possible Faraday or Watt at £100,000, he would be dirt cheap at the money.”

Finally, let me plead for the happiness of the little ones ; all that we can do to brighten their lives, let us do it. Remember the beautiful world they live in lasts but a short time—the hard, logical, every-day world only too soon replaces it. If then fairy tales and picture books can afford children even only one half hour’s pure unalloyed happiness per week, give it them by all means. It will be a bright star in their horizon, which as the gloomy clouds of the fading years roll by, occasionally peeps through the gloom, and, irradiates, but for a second, a life, it may be saddened by toil and broken by suffering.

They look up with their pale and sunken faces,  
And their looks are sad to see,  
For the man's hoary anguish draws and presses,  
Down the cheeks of infancy ;  
"Your old earth," they say, "is very dreary,  
Our young feet," they say, "are very weak,  
Few paces have we taken yet are weary—  
Our grave-rest is very far to seek ;  
Ask the aged why they weep, and not the children,  
For the outside earth is cold,  
And we young ones stand without, in our bewildering,  
And the graves are for the old."

NOTE.—My indebtedness to the following is obvious—

1. "Studies of Childhood" by Sully.
2. "First three years of Childhood" by Perez.
3. "Child Study" in Commissioner's Report, U.S.A., for 1892-3. Vol. I.

## “THE OLD AND THE NEW EDUCATION.”

Ni fedrent gyfrif fawr, ac ni fedrent ddarllen dim, na thorri eu henwau, na thynnu llun. Ond yr oeddynt yn abnabod llais pob aderyn, gwyddent enw pob blodeuyn, yr oeddynt yn hoff o'u gilydd ac yr oeddynt wedi dysgu dweyd y gwir.—*O. M. Edwards.*

THIS is an optimistic age. The eloquence of the scientific seer has fallen upon us. We listen with unctuous complacency to his words as he tells us that this is the age towards which all creation has moved, and that this great upward march of humanity has culminated in us—you and me—the last triumphs of Nature! Whatever exists must be good: for it has “*survived.*” Its existence has justified its appearance. And so we sum up our assets in the balance of life and find that we are thoroughly solvent. Automatically we frown at the pessimist who comes along and shakes his head and dolefully insinuates that physically, at any rate, we are fast degenerating. “Your schools,” says the pessimist, “are sapping rapidly the physical vitality of the race. Look at the physical sterility of your thinkers and the stunted forms of your city school-children! Cities themselves can and do kill a family in three generations; with the schools they will do it in two.” I do not intend worrying you, my dear reader, with a general criticism of modern life; but I do want you to

spend a short time with me comparing education or training in the olden days with the training of to-day, more particularly the training of our little ones.

We are told that these Welsh children of long ago knew the voice of every bird and the name of every flower. They were trained to love each other and the truth. Can as much be said of our modern training—a couple of thousand years later? Some of us think that we have been in this respect progressing backwards!

How many of our schools teach children to know the songs of the birds and the names of the flowers? It is true that “object lessons” are given ostensibly for this purpose amongst others; but some of us know how often the spirit of Pestalozzi flies from these displays, affrighted at the unforeseen developments of his beneficent endeavours. As for teaching our tiny ones the Golden Rule and to love the truth, our time is so full of controversy as to catechisms, religious instruction, etc., that there is left but scant opportunity to cultivate the moral side of the child. Our religious difficulty (even though it be but the creation of a disordered imagination) has stifled moral culture, and the teacher is so hemmed in by sectarian jealousies that he dare not speak with unfettered mind to the child of these things which are so essential to right living.

We have taken from the trainer his most efficient tool for character-building—namely, the moral basis of a sound curriculum. Not catechisms, so much as sound morals, are needed. Surely the teacher is *in loco parentis*, and, if you give him your child to train, then trust him all in all. Let us not limit the teacher’s endeavour to the training of mechanical dexterity in the manipulation of figures. The school should be not merely a place for the acquiring of certain more or less useful arts; but it

is a shop in which characters are chiselled out—not by the teacher, remember, but really by the child himself. An educational system which ignores moral culture is worse than useless—it is fatal to high ideal and fine character. A school which does not lay greater emphasis on “right living” than on “right thinking” cumbereth the ground. And the foundation of this “right living,” this only satisfactory system of training, is an intimate knowledge and love of Nature. Perfect life is life in harmony with its environment—*i.e.*, Nature. All imperfection of character is a discordance—a lack of harmony between man and Nature. And remember that many, if not most, of these discordances or imperfections are due to ignorance of Nature.

Ignorance, rather than being an excuse, is a crime in the eyes of Nature. Hence our fathers found by sad experience (that best of teachers) how necessary it was for them to know Nature in her diversity, and so their system of training arose.

Where are we? Our system of training is not sufficiently natural; it is too artificial—so much so that, perhaps, much of the disease and unhappiness in all forms to-day is due to this system itself, which is a relic of that mediæval scholasticism that deified the word and degraded the thing. The handiness of old-world manhood, the instinctive resourcefulness of old-world motherhood, the bright gladness of old-world youth, and the curiosity and inquisitiveness of old-world childhood have all disappeared, leaving in their place but the precocious *gamin* with his face full of weariness and his mind lacking altogether the sprightly vivacity of old-time children. Words, words, filling the heads of the little ones with clattering cymbals instead of with real thoughts, real ideas. The children are as visitors to

Ghostland, wandering amid intangible shadows and hollow noises. By their dulled eyes, their weary voices, one sees how they long for the grasp of some kindly hand that will lead them out of this immaterial phantasmagoria, out into the world of things.

We must hark back again to Nature. Despite the preaching of Rousseau, Pestalozzi, and Froebel, we are in some respects as far away from a natural system of training as ever. Let us return to our fathers' ideals. We must lead our little ones out into the fields; we must wander with them up hill and down dale, by rushing rivulet and receding tide. Our hill-sides shall be our class-rooms sometimes; there we will train them to know and to love every flower that blooms and every wind that blows; they shall watch the fleecy cloud scudding across the sky, and the timid hare and wily fox shall be friends who will tell them tales of Nature-wisdom. So shall our children come to see the beautiful, the good, and the true—that triune aspect of an eternal one-ness. The voice of the birds shall be more than music to them—it shall be an inspiration to better things. They shall know, and so love, their land; out under the blue sky we will tell them stories of how the good Lady of Snowdon lived and Llywelyn died; poems of Ceiriog and Islwyn shall we give them, as dear treasures of the mind; songs, too, rich and melodious as the babbling of mountain streams shall be theirs; all that our land can give our children—*its* children—let it give. Do not let our children imagine that their land has nothing to give them; what *it* cannot give, nought else can. We will show them how the plant that does not send its rootlets deep down into the earth is torn away by the first gust of wind; whilst its neighbour, with its roots reaching deep into the soil, stands gently swaying to the winds of

heaven. Instead of repeating "twice two are four," they shall count for us the petals of the primrose or the rays of the starfish.

Instead of bothering their little minds with the horrors of an artificial alphabet, we will show them all things that are beautiful around them and tell them the name of each; then, perhaps, some day we will tell them of deeds that were good and noble, and so they will come to recognise and to know, and, perchance, to do them. And as for other things, we will teach them to know the different shapes of leaves and different colours of birds; and they shall draw these forms in the sand of the sea-shore or playground, and, perhaps, later on, with pencil and crayon.

Let us, finally, give up the idea of a standard coinage in education; Nature refuses definitely to allow her diversity to be obliterated by any system, however mechanical. Let us, further, give up the idea that our children are grown-up folk; we then shall see how foolish it is to talk to them in the language and thought of adults—to expect them to recognise religious truths and dogmas which even adults, to judge by their actions, have not yet been able to appreciate to the full.

THE END.







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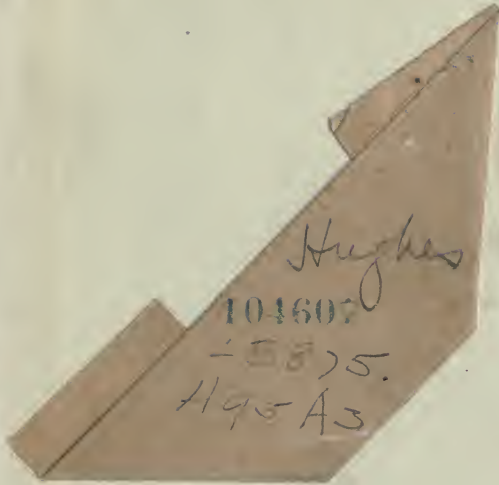
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